The Outlook

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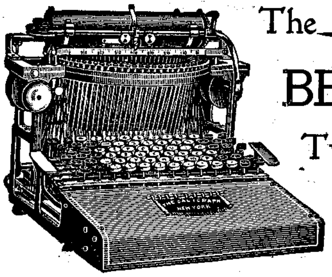

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ATTORNEY-GENERAL McKenna's welcome decision that the Dingley Act does not impose a discriminating duty of ten per cent. against goods imported into this country through Canada presents in substance the following argument: (1) Congress must not be supposed to have changed the previous law unless the purpose to change it is a necessary inference from the text of the new measure. (2) There is nothing in the Dingley Bill necessarily inconsistent with the supposition that Congress intended to continue the system of reciprocal bonding privileges between this country and Canada. (3) The seemingly inconsistent clause—that directly imposing a ten per cent. duty on goods brought first into Canada and thence into this country—may be regarded as a mere precaution lest foreign countries levying discriminating duties upon goods imported in American vessels should evade our own discriminating duties by shipping first to Canadian ports and thence transshipping by rail into this country. Inasmuch as every tariff act in this country has imposed, under certain conditions, a ten per cent. discriminating duty upon goods brought directly to our ports in foreign vessels, it is rational to suppose that the present Congress intended to impose the same duty upon goods brought indirectly to our ports in foreign vessels. (4) That Congress did not intend to overthrow the system of reciprocal commercial privileges under which discriminating duties have been held in abeyance is indicated by the fact that "an act to authorize the President to suspend discriminating duties imposed on foreign vessels" was approved on the same day as the Dingley Act. Mr. McKenna's long and intricate argument is not at all points as convincing as we would desire, but the general view it takes is a commonsense one, and relieves the country of the scandal of having had its law changed in the interests of the transcontinental railroads, without the knowledge even of a majority of the Conference Committee responsible for the change. If those who wish to protect our railroads against Canadian competition can carry through their measure in open Congress, well and good, but protection secured through the smuggling of legislation ought to be unwelcome to protectionists.

◆

The Supreme Court of Wisconsin has sensibly overthrown the gross usurpation of authority attempted by a subordinate member of the Wisconsin judiciary during the campaign last spring. The case was as follows: Judge W. F. Bailey, of Eau Claire, was a candidate for re-election. Two citizens of Eau Claire—L. A. Doolittle, an attorney, and H. C. Ashbaugh, an editor—both of whom were strongly opposed to Judge Bailey, published articles charging him with extravagance in his management of the court, unfairness and partiality in the treatment of litigants, and openness to corrupt motives. All of these charges, if false, were civil and criminal libels of a most serious nature, but the Judge, instead of availing himself of the remedies open to him as a citizen, assumed the judicial prerogative to act as prosecutor, judge, and jury in his own case. He instituted proceedings against his critics for contempt of court, and when the accused at his bar secured from the Supreme Court an alternative writ of prohibition, he adjudged them guilty of fresh contempt for having filed affidavits alleging the truth of their criticisms, and committed them to jail for thirty days, the sentence to begin at once. The Supreme Court then held that the new contempt proceedings were in excess of the jurisdiction of the Judge, and made the writ of prohibition absolute. In the opinion filed last week the Supreme Court put the gist of the case into the following telling paragraphs:

> Truly it must be a grievous and weighty necessity which will justify so arbitrary a proceeding, whereby a candidate for office becomes the ac-

cuser, judge, and jury, and may within a few hours summarily punish his critic by imprisonment. The result of such doctrine is that all unfavorable criticism of a sitting judge's past official conduct can be at once stopped by the judge himself, or, if not stopped, can be punished by immediate imprisonment.

If there can be any more effectual way to gag the press and subvert freedom of speech, we do not know where to find it. Under such a rule the merits of a sitting judge may be rehearsed, but as to his demerits there must be profound silence. In our opinion no such divinity "doth hedge about" a judge—certainly not when he is a candidate for public office.

⁂

The present agitation in Boston against the ratification of the law which practically guarantees the West End Street Railway Company eight per cent. dividends on its watered stock for ninety-nine years, provided it makes a large immediate investment in proposed lines, has elicited a letter from Congressman Fitzgerald which incidentally refers to a much-neglected feature of the private management of municipal monopolies. The reference is as follows:

> I remember my experience with the West End Railroad when, as a member of the Senate, I fought for free transfers and for the heating of the cars. I was called from my seat one day by the attorney of the corporation, who was watching the interests of that corporation, and who informed me that my continued antagonism to the West End in the fight for free transfers and heating of the cars would lose me all recognition at the hands of that corporation in the matter of the employment of men. I represented a large working constituency, and I was appealed to almost daily to secure employment for men in the West End Railroad. When they found they could use no other club, they made this threat, and on my answering the West End attorney that I was going to fight the West End Railroad as long as I could when it did not treat the public fairly, I was then denied every favor in the matter of the employment of men, and I have failed to put any person to work in that corporation since. This is the experience, I believe, of every man who has fought that corporation at the State-House, and the result is that two-thirds of the men employed in the West End are not citizens of Boston, but are persons imported from other parts of the country and the Provinces.

The spoils system is at present the abominable feature of the public management of municipal enterprises, but the spoils system is not confined to enterprises under direct public management. Wherever an enterprise receives peculiar privileges from the public, it enters politics by the necessities of its position, and distributes the places at its disposal after the tolerated principles of political warfare. The use of patronage by private monopolies is always difficult to prove, and therefore peculiarly difficult to correct; but few men conversant with the facts question that the municipal monopolies under private management furnish more patronage to the managers of party machines than does our public-school system.

⁂

Just at a time when the movement for municipal ownership and control of gas and water works and electric lighting plants, and even street railways, is stronger and more extended than at any previous period of our municipal history, an apparently successful effort is being made in Philadelphia to have that city part with its gas-works. Since 1841 Philadelphia has owned these works and furnished gas at a comparatively low rate (the present rate being $1 per thousand cubic feet), but the works have always been conducted as an adjunct of a political machine rather than on a business basis. At one time the Gas Trust (originally devised to keep the works out of politics) became the dominant power in politics; and the Gas Bureau, with its two thousand employees, is still a potent political factor in the hands of the Administration faction of the Republican party. Persistent efforts have more than once been made to buy the gas-works, but all formal offers have heretofore been refused. In August, 1888, however, a contract was made with the Philadelphia Gas Improvement Company by which the latter was to deliver water-gas to the city's "holders" at the rate of 37½ cents per 1,000 cubic feet. The argument made on behalf of this contract was that the city had not the means with which to extend its plant and meet the increased demand for gas. The sum annually appropriated for the purchase of water-gas under this contract has increased from $300,000 to $800,000, the city now purchasing about thirty per cent. of all the gas needed to supply the demand. During the period covered by this contract the municipal plant has, through the lack of adequate Councilmanic appropriations, been allowed to become antiquated. Councils seemed to have money for everything else, but none for the improvement of the gas-works.

⁂

At this juncture, when the public works are in bad shape and the quality of the gas is poor and the consumers are discontented, the United Gas Improvement Company (which controls the Philadelphia Improvement Company) has made a most seductive offer to lease the works for thirty years, agreeing to purchase for cash all the materials and supply at hand, estimated to be worth about $1,000,000; to make annual payments aggregating for the term of the lease $36,725,000; to furnish to the city free of charge for its own use 700,000,000 cubic feet per annum; to spend $15,000,000 in improvements and extensions; to maintain the present price and to furnish gas of a higher candle-power; and to return the works in first-class shape at the expiration of the lease. The prospects at present are that the lease will be authorized, as the people seem to be tired of the present mismanagement of the works, and the applicants for the lease have heretofore always been successful in securing from Councils acquiescence in their plans. While the terms of the lease—better gas for consumers and $1,700,000 a year for the public—are so favorable as to show the immense advantage of municipal ownership without municipal operation, it seems a shame that the city of Philadelphia cannot, like the city of Wheeling or the Chicago Gas Trust, make its own gas for less than fifty cents a thousand for all expenses, and thus save the people $3,500,000 a year. The overthrow of the spoils system is certainly the price of liberty from monopolies.

⁂

No strike of recent years has developed into a class struggle of such proportions as has the engineers' lockout in England. At the beginning, it will be recalled, the affair was merely a strike for the eight-hour day on the part of the machinists employed by a few firms in London. Taken up by the Employers' Federation on one side and the Amalgamated Society of Engineers on the other, it became a national conflict in the engineering trade. Nearly every engineer employed by a member of the Employers' Federation in any part of Great Britain is either locked out because of his membership in the trade-union, or has struck because of the lockout of members. As many non-union machinists have joined in the strike, the number of men entitled to receive strike pay has risen to 47,000. Fortunately for the men, the head of the Employers' Federation a few weeks ago boldly avowed that the object of the lockout was to give British employers "the same freedom in the management of their work" that has been enjoyed by the Carnegie Company at Pittsburg since its defeat of the unions. This announcement brought the engineers the enthusiastic support of all who believe in trades-unions, and contributions flowed in from all parts of the country. The fact that English workingmen have continued to invest their savings in the co-operative societies they established has proven a great source of strength. The £500 voted by the Durham Miners' Association has been matched by another £500 from the Gateshead Co-operative Society, and the £350 contributed by the Northumberland Miners' Association is fairly overshadowed by a grant of £3,000 from the Co-operative Wholesale Society.

⁂

But these notable expressions of a belief in the "solidarity of labor" are not what has given the present strike its greatest significance. Employers outside the engineering trade have expressed in the same way their belief in the solidarity of capital. According to the English correspondent of the New York "Sun," organized bodies of employers, such as the Colliery-Owners' Association, have done this. Certainly individual employers have done it; and the Earl of Wemyss's "Free Labor Association" has co-operated energetically with the Employers' Federation in the effort to "free" laborers from the opportunity to make collective agreements with employing firms or corporations. Just how the battle is going it is difficult to determine. The "Sun's" English correspondent, for example, reports that the engineers' union is already nearly bankrupt, while the London "Christian World" publishes the report that up to the first week in September the union had drawn upon its fund of £400,000 to the extent of only £5,000. During the present month, however, the expenses of the union have been heavier, and although the contributions of other unions have been supplemented by heavy assessments from 70,000 engineers who have already obtained the eight-hour day, there is a considerable weekly drain upon the great reserve. Both sides express entire confidence in ultimate victory, the employers pointing to fresh firms and fresh districts which have posted the lockout notices, while the men boast that a constantly increasing number of firms—especially in London—are conceding the eight-hour day, and that these are employing large numbers of men locked out by idle competitors. At this distance from the scene of conflict no forecast is possible except that wider and firmer ramifications of unionism are hereafter to be anticipated both among employed and among employers.

❀

The negro question in the South is evidently giving the National Administration no little difficulty. The negroes whose votes helped first to secure the nomination and then the election of Mr. McKinley are demanding recognition by appointment to political office. The negro preachers in the colored churches in Baltimore are urging on their Republican congregations their right to a share in the offices which the Republican party has at its disposal. It is in concession to this demand that Mr. Loftin was appointed to the post-office at Hogansville, Ga., and that now Mr. Henry Demas has been appointed United States Naval Officer in New Orleans. If public offices are public spoils which belong to the victors, the negroes are certainly entitled to their share. The difficulty in which the Administration finds itself placed is only a new illustration of the folly, not to say the crime, of this spoils principle or no-principle. The Administration, having, to even a limited extent, acted upon this principle, and having appointed negroes to Federal offices, is certainly bound by every consideration of honor to use the whole power of the Federal Government to maintain those officers in their places, to defend them from assault, and to bring any assailants to trial and to punishment. For while it is true that those who are, in diplomatic phrase, *personæ non gratæ* ought not to be appointed to administrative office in any local community, it is certainly not less true that the Federal Government, having made such an appointment, is bound to defend its appointee against every form of assault.

❀

There is scarcely any doubt that General Benjamin F. Tracy, of Brooklyn, will be the candidate for Mayor of New York of the Republican organization. General Tracy's reply to the request of Mr. Quigg, in behalf of the County Committee, that he should allow his name to be placed before the City Convention, taken in connection with the result of the Republican primaries, seems to make it certain that before these lines are read the nomination will have been made. General Tracy is a man of high personal and executive qualities. The choice of such a candidate is in itself a tribute to the extent and seriousness of the Citizens' movement. The indications, however, at this writing are that he is nominated for the purpose of being withdrawn provided Mr. Low will also withdraw and the Citizens' Union will agree on some compromise candidate. The practicability of such a compromise we discuss in another column. As was expected, Mr. Platt's sub-leaders had their own way in the primaries; it is stated by them that about 45,000 votes were cast at the New York primaries; the New York City Republican vote for Mr. McKinley was 156,359; there are, therefore, over 100,000 Republican New York City voters who took no part in the primaries, and it cannot be doubted that a large number of these voters are included among the 130,000 who have by signature approved of the nomination of Mr. Low on an absolutely non-partisan basis. Those who are reluctant to leave National political issues out of sight may well be reminded of the fact that the amended State Constitution separated city from State elections with precisely this intention, and that the principle was then generally accepted as sound and wise. In the Democratic ranks National issues are still threatening a division. The Silver Democrats are talking of asking Mr. Henry George to be their candidate, and this has caused a counter-movement on the part of the regular Tammany leaders, who are beginning to indicate some willingness to consider a mild indorsement of the National Democratic platform of 1896.

❀

Mr. Low has promptly put an end to the campaign reports of his opponents that he might withdraw, by a direct statement. He says: "If the Citizens' Union were to ask me to retire, I should do so without a moment's hesitation; but, until then, I am in the field to stay and to make as strong a fight as I can for the cause I have the honor to represent. The Citizens' Union, as I understand its attitude, has not the slightest idea of requesting my withdrawal." The entire statement of Mr. Low is conciliatory in just so far as it indicates a willingness to unite with any and all friends of good government to make municipal issues this year paramount to National political issues. A most significant paragraph is addressed to those who denounce the act of the Citizens' Union in making a nomination before the Republican City Convention met. In effect he says that precisely this has been done before, without offense, and with absolute success. We quote:

> When I ran for Mayor of Brooklyn the second time, I was nominated first by the citizens without regard to party, in mass-meeting assembled, and subsequently by the Republican party acting through its official channels. I stood at that time upon the same platform as to non-partisanship upon which I stand now. This year, in New York, I have been nominated by the Citizens' Union, acting on behalf of its own membership of 25,000, but acting also on behalf of 102,000 other citizens of all parties. The year of my second election in Brooklyn was 1883. In 1882 Cleveland, as candidate for Governor, carried Brooklyn by 35,000 majority. He carried the city again as candidate for President in 1884 by 15,000 majority. I give the figures from memory, but they are substantially correct. Right in between these two years of heavy tidal waves in Brooklyn, the cause of non-partisanship in the administration of the city was attractive enough to gain a decisive victory. It is not easy to understand why it should be any more difficult for the Republican party of Greater New York, in 1897, to help forward such a cause, under existing conditions, than it was for the Republican party in Brooklyn, in 1883, to support a non-partisan candidate nominated in advance simply by a mass-meeting.

❀

The publication of the fortieth-anniversary number of the "Atlantic Monthly" is very properly made the occasion of editorial reminiscence on the part of its editor. It is no exaggeration to say that the "Atlantic" has been the companion of the lovers and students of American literature for more than a quarter of a century, that its history during the early part of its career was almost identical with the history of American literature, and that during the latter part of its career, although the literary movement has immensely widened and no longer flows in a single channel, it has sustained its old traditions. A magazine which was launched under the editorship of Mr. Lowell, and which included among the contributors to its first number Motley, Longfellow, Emerson, Holmes, Whittier, Charles Eliot Norton, Mrs. Stowe, and Parke Godwin, was committed to the best literature at the very start, and all the conditions were favorable to an easy and sustained supremacy in the literary field; for nearly all the leading authors of the country were then residents in Boston or in its neighborhood, and naturally turned to the "Atlantic" as a medium for communication with the most cultivated people of the country. To the first number Whittier, Longfellow, Lowell, and Emerson contributed verse, and the first installment of "The Autocrat of the Breakfast-Table" appeared in the same issue. In poetry, literary criticism, fiction, the essay, and history, the "Atlantic," although no longer in exclusive possession of the field, has kept itself steadily at the front, and it still has no superior as a literary periodical. The list of its editors suggests the quality of the editorial work which has kept the "Atlantic" where Lowell started it; for to Lowell succeeded James T. Fields, a man who had an extraordinary faculty for discovering the literary gift and making it express itself; and after Mr. Fields came in succession Mr. Aldrich, Mr. Howells, and Mr. Horace E. Scudder. It ought to be added, though it does not appear in the "Atlantic's" résumé of its history, that the recent association of Mr. Walter H. Page with Mr. Scudder in the editorship of the "Atlantic" has brought into its editorial office one of the most intelligent and thoroughly trained editors in the country.

❀

There was a time when the feeling began to spread that the "Atlantic" was essentially a New England magazine; but that time has passed, for the "Atlantic" has been fully aware of the fact that American literature during the last twenty years has become national, and that New England is now, in the larger development of the intellectual life of the country, only one part of a great community. The South, the Middle States, and the West have been of late years constantly represented in its pages. Miss Murfree has published her stories side by side with Miss Jewett; Mrs. Catherwood with Mrs. Ward; Octave Thanet and Miss Repplier with Mrs. Deland. A review of the history of such a publication as the "Atlantic" almost forces a comparison of literary conditions as they existed forty years ago with present conditions. The distinguished group of men of letters who were the sponsors of the magazine have all gone to their rest. In the field of poetry it must be said frankly that no contemporary stands where Lowell, Emerson, Longfellow, and Holmes at his best, stood. In almost every other department there has been a great enlargement of literary activities, with no loss of literary quality. In history, economics, politics, and social science there has been a distinct advance in general intelligence, in thoroughness of workmanship, and in breadth of public interest; in fiction, Hawthorne aside, there has been a notable growth in vitality, scope, and power. A year which has seen the publication of three such stories as Dr. Mitchell's "Hugh Wynne," James Lane Allen's "Choir Invisible," and Miss Wilkins's "Jerome" can compare favorably with any previous year in the history of American letters. There is, it is true, no such single group of men of genius as that which stood sponsor for the "Atlantic," but there is a far wider knowledge of literature, a higher general scholarship, and a much broader culture to-day than there was forty years ago, and there is a much larger number of trained writers in the different departments of literature.

❀

The only Power which can be said to have come out of the recent confusion in the East with increased prestige is Turkey. Greece has shown commendable pluck; but she has also revealed great weakness of organization and great lack of judgment. The European Powers have one and all failed to develop a policy which commanded the respect of thinking men. Since the massacres in Armenia began, Russia has shown no other interest in the matter than the carrying out of her own selfish policy; the German Emperor has interfered only to support and commend the Turk or the Russian; England has undoubtedly been anxious to act in the interests of humanity and to protect Greece so far as possible, but she has been hampered by years of persistence in a short-sighted and false policy, and Lord Salisbury has abandoned, one after another, nearly every position which he had previously declared he would never surrender. Mr. Gladstone sums up the situation with his usual comprehensive force, as follows:

> The pain, shame, and mischief of the last two years in the Eastern policy transcend entirely the powers of any language I could use concerning them. The sum is this:
>
> Firstly—A hundred thousand Armenians have been slaughtered, with no security against a repetition, and with greater profit to the assassins.
>
> Secondly—Turkey is stronger than at any time since the Crimean War.
>
> Thirdly—Greece is weaker than at any time since she became a kingdom.
>
> Fourthly—All this is due to the European concert—that is, the mutual hatred and distrust of the Powers

Altogether it is a melancholy picture, which reflects no credit upon diplomacy, ministerial policy, or European opinion; and, unhappily, there are probably still further humiliations for Greece and the Powers in Crete, where Turkey is still to be settled with.

❀

Official contradiction has been made of the report that General Woodford, United States Minister to Spain, had delivered to that country an "ultimatum"—a word, by the way, newspapers are much given to using and misusing. It is probable that General Woodford has had an informal interview with the Duke of Tetuan, the Spanish Minister of Foreign Affairs, and it is reasonable to suppose that the view of our Government about Cuban affairs has again been urged upon Spain. The policy of the present Administration seems to coincide with that of its predecessor and with that taken by the United States twenty-five years ago, in the middle of the "ten years' insurrection." That policy, as outlined by President Cleveland and before him by President Grant, is, in brief, that the United States has close and large interests involved; that it has a right to recognize, also, motives of humanity; that it has no desire to break friendly relations with Spain or to ignore obligations of international law, but that, to quote Mr. Cleveland, "The time may arrive when a direct policy and care for our interests, as well as a regard for the interests of other nations and their citizens, joined by considerations of humanity, and a desire to see a rich and fertile country, intimately related to us, saved from complete devastation, will constrain our Government to such action as will subserve the interests thus involved, and at the same time promise to Cuba and its inhabitants an opportunity to enjoy the blessings of peace." The real difficulty is, first, in determining when that time has come, and, secondly, in choosing a practical method of intervention. Neither Spain nor the Cuban insurgents have shown the least disposition to accept the offices of the United States in effecting a compromise; and neither the purchase of Cuba nor its annexation by the United States receives hearty support in this country. There remain the recognition by us of Cuban belligerency (which has objections of international law, and, after all, would give rather a moral than a practical support) and a threat of armed intervention. In many ways the question is a difficult one, and it is not to be wondered at that Congress and President McKinley do not solve it offhand.

❀

The Hawaiian Senate has met in extra session and ratified the annexation treaty now before the American Senate. The ratification was passed without a dissenting vote, and every Senator was present. Such is the unofficial information furnished from San Francisco last week, and there is no reason to doubt its accuracy. Diplomatically the action may be important as affording a formal basis for the action of our own Senate, but politically it has no importance. No one, we suppose, has at any time doubted that the American residents in Hawaii, practically without exception, are desirous of annexation, and that annexation is desired by the present Hawaiian Government, and earnestly desired by it. We think, too, there can be little doubt that annexation will inure to the advantage, at least commercially, of Hawaii. The question which Americans have to consider is whether or not it would inure to the advantage of the United States; and if to our disadvantage, whether the advantages to our neighbor are so great as to counterbalance the disadvantages to ourselves.

❀

The situation with regard to the yellow fever in the South has changed very little the past week. Cooler weather causes hopefulness for the future, though the immediate effect, the doctors say, is to increase the death-rate. The number of new cases at the infected points—New Orleans, Mobile, Ocean Springs, Edwards, Jackson, Biloxi, and two or three others—is not large. It is confidently expected that there will be a gradual decrease in the disease, and that it will not become epidemic. At New Orleans the turning of a school-house into a yellow-fever hospital caused great indignation among near-by residents, threats of burning the school-house were freely indulged in, and one such attempt was actually made. The mob was incensed, not at the choice of a school-house for the purpose, but because a yellow-fever hospital was to be established near their dwellings. Many Southern schools and colleges, such as Straight and Tougaloo Universities, have very sensibly postponed the opening of their school year on account of possible danger and the existing restrictions on travel. Railways have been compelled to limit their sales of tickets to, as well as from, suspected towns, and local quarantines are maintained very generally.

❀

The Real Issue

The opposition of the Platt Republicans to the election of Mr. Low as Mayor of the Greater New York puzzles a great many even of well-informed journalists in the city. Mr. Low is a Republican; his election and his administration would inure to the credit of the Republican party. With the votes already practically pledged to him his election would be highly probable, if he were nominated and supported by the Republican party. The reasons assigned for the opposition to him are humorously inadequate. They are such as these: that he has been nominated by the Independents without awaiting the action of the Republican caucus; that he is suspected of having voted for Mr. Cleveland more than once; and that some of the representatives of the Citizens' Union have said unpleasant things of Mr. Platt and Mr. Quigg. If there were any remote possibility of the election of a partisan Republican, there might be some excuse for a partisan nomination. But there is no such possibility. The political alternative presented to the Republican machine is the election of a Republican who will not use the offices of the city for the benefit of the Republican party, or the election of a Democrat who will use them for the benefit of the Democratic party.

Under such circumstances we are compelled to believe that the reasons assigned for the opposition to Mr. Low are not the real reasons. The real reason is that Mr. Low and the Citizens' Union stand for a principle to which Mr. Platt and those associated with him are far more hostile than to Tammany. That principle is the municipal ownership of municipal franchises.

Both in England and on the Continent the streets of the great cities are recognized as the property of the cities. When, for public convenience, it becomes desirable to lay down tracks on any of these streets, and run cars over them for the transportation of passengers, the privilege of such exclusive use of the public streets is not given away to a private corporation, nor is it sold to the private corporation *in perpetuo*; it is leased for a limited term, generally not over twenty-five years. If at the end of that twenty-five years the exclusive privilege of running cars through the streets has increased in value, the people get the benefit of the increase. And as the tendency of our time is toward the concentration of population in great cities, and the consequent demand for transportation grows much more rapidly than the facilities which can be furnished, the franchise almost invariably does increase in value. There has of late arisen a party in the United States, constantly increasing in numbers and influence, which demands the adoption, by American municipalities, of the principle already recognized and in operation abroad. That this principle is inherently just and right cannot be denied; that the benefits to the people of its adoption will be very great is demonstrated by recent history. We need not cross the ocean and cite the experiences of Birmingham, Glasgow, and Berlin; we have experiences nearer home quite as conclusive. Toronto is a city in which the demands for transportation are insignificant as compared with those which exist in the Greater New York; and in Toronto the experiment of three-cent fares (eight tickets for a quarter) during the hours in which citizens of all classes go to and from their work has succeeded so well that, although the lease of the company lasts but thirty years, and the company at the end of the lease is entitled only to the cost of duplicating its tangible property, nevertheless the company's securities are selling in the market for more than double the amount of capital invested. This lease required that the company should submit its books to the inspection of public officials, and these books show that the average cost of transporting a passenger is barely two cents. In Detroit, where the battle between the public and the privileged corporations has been going on for several years, it has been proved profitable to carry passengers for three cents throughout the day, though the exact financial results are not matters of public record. In both these cities the reduction in fares has amounted to twenty-four cents a week, or twelve dollars a year, to all citizens riding daily to and from their work. To the working people this saving is more than a week's wages, and inasmuch as the three-cent fare pays all the operating expenses, and an interest on the capital invested, higher rates are manifestly unjust.

In Cincinnati, in Chicago, in Indianapolis, in St. Louis, and in New York, perhaps in other American cities also, the people are beginning to perceive the injustice and the impolicy of giving their highways to private corporations for private profit. The struggles of the people both in Chicago and in Indianapolis to inaugurate a better policy are familiar to the readers of The Outlook—struggles defeated in Chicago by the extraordinary, if not corrupt, action of the Legislature, and in Indianapolis by the decision of a single Federal judge practically setting aside the decision of the State judiciary. The efforts which have been made in this city to inaugurate a rapid-transit scheme which should belong to the people, and the full advantage of which they should reap, and the extraordinary difficulties which have been mysteriously thrown in the way of the accomplishment of this undertaking, are also measurably familiar. There now appears upon the scene a party which demands the application of the principle of municipal ownership of municipal franchises to all the franchises in the city. The demand is not radical, and it does not disregard vested interests. Mr. Low and the Citizens' Union simply demand that the principle already embodied in the charter of the Greater New York shall be honestly carried out; that, to quote Mr. Low's own words, "the city shall not part with the ownership of its franchises, but shall lease them for a limited period, subject to an occasional revision of the terms;" and that this principle shall be applied to "every consent to change the power by street railroads," as though it were a new franchise. The fact that Mr. Low stands for this principle, and that he is known to be a man of wealth, of social influence, and of courage, is the real reason of Mr. Platt's opposition to Mr. Low's nomination. If Mr. Low would take a large block of stock in the Metropolitan Traction Company, and another large block in the Brooklyn Heights Railroad Company, as a guarantee that he would make no attempt to give to the city the benefits of the franchises which are now enjoyed by private corporations, and would not interfere with special legislation in aid of favored corporations, the fact that he was nominated without Mr. Platt's consent, and that some of his associates have said disagreeable things about Mr. Platt, would count for nothing.

The evidence that this is the real opposition to Mr. Low is, it is true, circumstantial, but it is none the less convincing. The political leaders in both the Republican and the Democratic machines are directly or indirectly interested in these favored corporations. The New York "Evening Post," which no one will accuse of socialistic or anti-corporate prejudices, reports some of these facts. On the Democratic side ex-Secretary Whitney, John D. Crimmins, John C. Sheehan, Daniel S. Lamont, Hugh J. Grant, Richard Croker, and ex-Governor Flower all have large interests in the railroads whose profits depend upon nullifying the principle of municipal ownership incorporated in the city charter. On the Republican side Edward Lauterbach, until recently the Chairman of the Republican Committee, is a recognized official representative of one of the great street railroad lines, while P. H. Flynn, whose influence was largely instrumental in defeating Jacob Worth in the Kings County Republican Committee meeting because he favored Seth Low, is a principal owner of one of the great Brooklyn lines. Mr. Tracy, the probable Republican machine nominee, is a corporation lawyer, and has for a partner a son of Mr. Platt. The New York "Sun," the one journal in the city which has bitterly opposed the rapid-transit scheme, because it was to belong to the people, is the one journal which is bitterly opposing Mr. Low, and unscrupulously vilifying him. Mr. Platt's commercial and political affiliations with the representatives of the favored corporations are well known, and it is an open secret that these favored corporations make large contributions to the campaign funds of both parties, and get their recompense from whichever party is in power through the directions of the boss in charge, now by special legislation in their favor, and now by defense from hostile legislation which they wish to avoid. That this is the fact has not, it is true, been legally proven; but it has been repeatedly charged, not by anonymous, irresponsible newspaper writers, but by public men familiar with political history, and, indeed, is not denied. And it is no secret to those well informed in the interior history of current affairs that both the Republican and the Democratic organizations are counting on large contributions from the street railroad corporations, in the present election, in case Mr. Low's withdrawal cannot be brought about.

Under these circumstances our judgment respecting the duty of Mr. Low and the Citizens' Union is very plain. They represent a principle, and to withdraw from the canvass would be to betray that principle. We do not, indeed, mean to affirm that Mr. Low is the only man who can represent it, though he is, in our judgment, the best representative to be found within the Greater New York. It is conceivable that Mr. Platt and Mr. Quigg, who represent corporate interests more than they represent the Republican party, might withdraw from the campaign, and that the Republican machine, left to itself, might agree with the Citizens' Union on some one else than Mr. Low to represent municipal ownership of municipal franchises; but, although this is a thinkable proposition, it is so highly improbable that it does not need to be considered. So long as Mr. Platt remains in control of the Republican organization, that organization will be controlled in the interest of the favored corporations; and so long as that continues to be the case, neither Mr. Low nor the Citizens' Union can withdraw from the canvass. Even if they are defeated, the campaign will be worth all it costs as a campaign of education. But their success is by no means impossible, perhaps not improbable. If they will put the municipal ownership of municipal franchises to the front, if they will make their campaign cry, not, Anything to beat Tammany, but, Anything to beat Tammanyism; if they will make it clear that they stand for the right of the people to own their highways and to have them administered for the public benefit; if they will send their best speakers to advocate this principle, not merely in the great halls in the aristocratic centers, but on the East Side, in the tenement-house districts, and among the foreign and especially the German populations; if they will make an open and vigorous attack, not only upon Tammany, but also upon Platt Republicanism as the advocate of special interests, and make clear to the people that the secret partnership between Platt and Croker has for its motto, Anything to beat popular rights; and if with this they will stand as vigorously as Mr. Low has stood, in his letter of acceptance, for that Home Rule which both the Democratic and the Republican parties when in power have either openly denied or flagrantly violated, it is not impossible, it is not even improbable, that they might carry the city by a great majority. The time is ripe for such a popular uprising, not against corporations nor against wealth, but against corrupt corporations and the corrupt use of wealth. The people only need a leader; and the only thing that could defeat such a leader as Mr. Low in such a campaign so conducted is the brevity of time which is left for it.

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Absolutism in Germany

William II. has just received two remarkable rebukes; one for his foreign, the other for his home, policy. The first was from Prince Bismarck, who has been doubly chagrined, first at the Russo-Austrian understanding, and secondly at the Franco-Russian alliance. Some result of Francis Joseph's recent visit to St. Petersburg is already evident in the Balkans, and its influence was by no means lessened during the showier sojourn at the Russian court of the always-journeying German Emperor. William I.'s last exhortation to his grandson was, "Be considerate to Russia," and the strengthening of Russo-German bonds was always the backbone of Bismarck's policy. On the other hand, it was even more a part of that policy to keep Russia from engagements with other nations. The Kaiser seems to have done his best, not only to maintain the friendliest relations with the Czar, but also to back the latter's absolutism wherever possible. The restraint placed upon Japan was an example. These efforts, however, have not been enough to save the second and perhaps the more important part of the Iron Chancellor's Russian policy from destruction, perhaps not so much by an Austro-Russian understanding as by the Franco-Russian alliance, with its implied warning to Germany. Prince Bismarck's course has been characterized by little scruple, but, under present circumstances, it would have seemed more than human for him not to remind his countrymen that Berlin had been the political center of Europe from the time when he and William I. came back from France at the head of United Germany (which they had created) until the day when William II. dismissed his great Minister. Though Berlin has been the axis around which Europe has revolved for a quarter of a century, St. Petersburg has now attained that distinction. Not only do all the Continental nations regard their safety as depending on their several understandings with Russia; England also is being forced to that position. Towards England the old Chancellor always showed a friendly reserve, but the impulsive young Kaiser spent the first years of his reign in an ardent courtship and the latter in alienating whatever of English affection he may have won.

The result of all these factors must be the isolation, not so much of England as of Germany. In other years, says Prince Bismarck in his "Hamburger Nachrichten," the German Foreign Office kept England busy in Egypt, France in Tunis, Italy in Abyssinia, Austria and Russia at Constantinople, and Germany herself in obtaining vast territories in Africa and elsewhere for colonial expansion. Nowadays all is changed. During the past seven years European nations have had more time to think of isolating Germany and less to quarrel among themselves, with the Fatherland only looking on, and, in the cynical Chancellor's words, "not risking the bones of a Pomeranian grenadier" to help any outside cause, even be it the humane one of saving a Turkish province from massacre and outrage. He might have added that Germany has recently done more than merely to look on, and, instead of her rescuing oppressed peoples, the rehabilitation of the Sultan, their oppressor, is primarily due to that admirer of absolutism, whether Russian or Turkish—the German Emperor. William II. would like to impose his will on all Europe, and not on the Triple Alliance alone; indeed, he would be glad to make his will felt among the republics of South America, converting a large part of Brazil and the Argentine into a German colony, and thus turning back the wheels of civilization towards "government by divine right." He has not, indeed, added any territory as yet to the German colonies, but Prince Bismarck might have given him the credit of always conceiving himself as about to create a colossal colonial empire; at all events, to obtain a sufficient navy for its defense. For this he would ruin the Fatherland, already staggering under its intolerable load of militarism.

This brings us to the second warning, that on the Kaiser's home policy. It came from Professor Reinhold, recently appointed by Imperial authority to the chair of Economics in the University of Berlin, presumably to counterbalance the Socialism of Professors Wagner and Schmoller. The invitation was accepted, but William II. was mistaken in his man. The latter, repelling the insinuation that he was to represent the Emperor in the University, made an address before leaving his home in Wiesbaden, declaring that social reforms could not be successfully carried out by an absolutist monarchy; the will and intelligence of the people must be enlisted as a factor. If this were not enough to show his position, Professor Reinhold followed it by averring that the Kaiser had destroyed the opposition to the Social Democratic movement by the perverseness with which political affairs were managed, and yet on this very opposition the security of the Imperial Government depended. A policy failing to recognize the natural rights of a free people was not only doomed to failure, but was causing grave anxiety as to the future of the Fatherland. While no one doubted the good intentions of the Government, its motives were obscured by official pedantry and narrow methods. In short, he declared, the people were intensely irritated without being consciously benefited. William II.'s mood may be imagined at reading such language from one who had been called to bless instead of to curse an absolutist policy. Nor is this all. Referring particularly to the disaffection in Bavaria, Wurtemburg, and Baden, Professor Reinhold had the hardihood to add: "Real conservatives in South Germany are frequently heard to say that it was stupid to kick Austria out of the German Bund—Austria, whose absolutist system was at least patriarchal and good-natured; Austria, who was liked by every one—and to exchange that despotism for another equally absolutist régime, but with the difference that the modern Prussian feudalism is simply unbearable, and its representatives personally insolent."

The words are not too strong. Frederick III. would have built up the civil rights of Germany by his well-known Liberal policy, but his son has already accomplished the ruin of those rights, a destruction far greater than Bismarck ever attempted. Liberty of speech is now unknown. The newspapers are muzzled. Honest burghers cannot say a word anywhere or at any time without a suspicion of a spy at their elbow. So many men have been unresistingly imprisoned on petty charges of insult to the monarch that the supineness and intimidation of most of his subjects has probably given to the Kaiser ground to believe that he could mediævalize all Germany. In this, however, he may find that the most worm-like will one day turn on him. Like a nervous driver, who ends by communicating his nervousness to the quietest horses, so in nearly ten years the restless young ruler of Germany has made an irritable out of a patient people. Even the good-natured South Germans are getting restive, and the other day in Nuremberg the Kaiser himself heard the bold cry, "We want no Prussians in Bavaria." That Prussianizing, already proclaimed by William II. in his Latin cries, "Sic volo, sic jubeo" and "Regis voluntas suprema lex," is declared by the Socialist leader, Herr Liebknecht, to be possible in Russia alone, and there only for a time; the German nation cannot be governed on such principles. The people's confirmation of these words is reflected at the polls. In the first election of the present Emperor's reign the Social Democrats increased their total vote to 1,250,000; in the second, to 2,250,000.

Perhaps a vain fanatic's love of display abroad and his effervescent absolutism at home may be the very means necessary to rouse the lethargic Teutons to replace their present unmanly government by a direct democracy.

Concerning Creeds

We publish in another column a letter on Creeds, which presents with much ability the argument on their behalf. Like most theological debates, the debate about creeds has largely turned upon the different meanings attached by the disputants to a word. If by creed we mean simply a statement of belief, no one can intelligently object to creeds. Indeed, he cannot even state his objection to them without using one; for the declaration, "I do not believe in creeds," is itself a creed, if every statement of belief is entitled to be so designated. But though this may perhaps be said to be the etymological meaning of the word, it is not the meaning which either ecclesiastical or common usage attaches to it. A creed signifies, properly, not every statement of belief, but a brief summary of all religious truth. Thus the affirmation, "I believe in the inspiration of the Scriptures," or "I believe in the infallibility of the Pope," does not by itself constitute a creed. Either would be only a single article of a creed. Assuming, then, the creed to be "a brief summary of religious doctrine," there are two objections to it: one to the assumption which underlies it; the other to the use which has been made of it. The latter is, of course, not strictly an objection to creeds, but rather to the misuse of them. Let us consider these objections separately.

I. The first objection, then, is to the assumption that it is possible to make a brief summary of religious faith which shall not be inadequate and misleading.

Religion has been defined to be—Such a manifestation of the Infinite as produces an influence on the moral life of man. It is quite competent for any man to make a statement of the manifestation of the Infinite which he has apprehended and which has influenced him; but it is not competent for him to make a summary of all the manifestations of the Infinite which have influenced humanity. Religion has been defined as—The life of God in the soul of man. Any man, if he is possessed of an analytical mind and a philosophical education, may make a statement of so much of the life of God as he enjoys in his own soul; but no man, and no body of men, is competent to make a summary which shall cover all the phases of that life in the souls of all men. The attempt to do this is an attempt to summarize, if not the Infinite, at least all the relations in which the Infinite stands to humanity. It assumes a knowledge which no man, no school, no epoch, possesses. Paul has said that we know in part and prophesy in part: the creed, regarded as a summary of religious faith, is an attempt to put into one brief epitome all religious knowledge, when in the nature of the case it is, and always must remain, fragmentary and imperfect; because it is the knowledge possessed by the finite of the Infinite.

This fundamental defect in all such attempted summaries is illustrated by the historic creeds of Christendom. They have all been fragments, containing some truths and omitting some, or putting them in imperfect relations and proportions. Thus Romanism has emphasized the unity of the Church, Puritanism the accountability of the individual; Calvinism the supreme authority of God, Arminianism the freedom and responsibility of man; Orthodoxy the sinfulness of man and his need of a divine redemption, Unitarianism the dignity of man and his filial relations to the heavenly Father. In all these creeds there has been truth, but none of them has been a summary of all religious truth. If each denomination had been content to say, This we have found concerning the Infinite, this we have experienced of the life of God in our own souls; and had been ready to listen to the word which other devout souls testified to concerning their experience of God; if, in other words, the creed had assumed to be, not a summary of religious truth, but a statement of so much of religious truth as the soul had learned; not a summary of religious life, but a statement of so much of life as the creed-maker had experienced, there would have been no objection to creeds, and the fact that they did not agree would have been deemed to add to, not to subtract from, their value.

II. Out of this false assumption that it is possible for men to embody in a brief summary all the truths of the religious life has naturally, if not necessarily, grown insistence upon the acceptance of the creed as essential to fellowship in the kingdom of God. When one supposed that he possessed a summary which contained the whole system of divine truth, he could not but regard as heretical every statement not contained in that summary, and he was likely to regard as essential every statement which it contained. Hence has arisen the clash of creeds. The Romanist has not accepted as a trust the portion of truth which he has perceived, and kept his mind open to see what God has given to his fellow-man; he has cast out the Protestant as a heretic. And the Protestant, not to be outdone in bigotry, has denounced the Romanist as priestridden and superstitious. Because each has thought that his summary contains the whole system of truth, he has shut his eyes to all other revelations. It is as if the primary colors, instead of uniting to make the sunlight, should fall to quarreling with one another, each insisting that it is quite competent to do the world's lighting, and that all other colors are intruders.

As a result, the creed—that is, the imperfect and fragmentary statement which assumed to be a summary of the whole truth—has been made obligatory, first on the clergy and then on the laity. The minister has not been free to take advantage of the light which his fathers enjoyed, and in that light to press forward for more light, to receive the manifestation of God to which his ancestors testify, and to keep his heart and mind open to receive other and further manifestations, adapted to his own temperament, and to testify to them. He has been shut up to an acceptance of the report of others; and if he ventured to differ from it, or to add to or subtract from it, or even to give it a different phraseology, better adapted to the understanding of his own times, he has been, in past epochs of the Church, persecuted and put to death, and even now is looked upon with more or less suspicion. No scientist will propound a creed, if by creed we mean a summary of truth. He will state the scientific truths in which he believes; he may even state what is generally believed by scientists at the present time, though it would probably be difficult to find any scientist who would do more than make such a statement regarding some particular branch of science. But no scientist would think of attempting to embody in one brief summary all that has been known and is to be known respecting science. The statements of scientific men on scientific subjects differ from the creeds of the religious thinkers in this very essential respect: the scientist is always eager for more light, and always ready to add to or subtract from the statement which he now holds; while the religious thinker, regarding his creed as a summary of all truth, looks upon it as final, and treats as an enemy of truth whoever proposes to modify it. Thus the creed closes investigation—that is, thinking—and substitutes submission to authority for open-mindedness to the light.

Nor is this the only, nor even the worst, effect, perhaps not of creeds, but of creed-subscription. The assumption that it is possible to summarize the whole of the Christian faith in an intellectual statement called a creed has had the tendency at once to belittle and to despiritualize faith. It has tended to substitute theology for religion, definitions of life for the life itself, belief in *a* God for personal acquaintance with God, a theory about Christ for loyalty to Christ, a theory of sin for repentance, and the acceptance of a creed for the consecration of the life. Under the influence of creed-subscription, the tendency has been to regard Christianity rather as a system of philosophy than as a new and divine life; the Church as a teaching rather than as a life-giving institution; Christ himself as a teacher rather than as Redeemer; revelation from God as a book, instead of as a living communion with Him, of which the book gives some account. In short, the tendency has been toward a subtle idolatry, though of an intellectual order—that is, toward the substitution of an intellectual *eidolon* for the spiritual reality. We are persuaded that the Church needs nothing more to-day than, first, a spiritual religion in place of a formal and intellectual one; and, second, a catholic religion in place of a narrow and traditional one. Requiring creed-subscription as a condition of entering the Church, or even as a condition of preaching the Gospel, stands in the way of both reforms—rather, let us say, of this double regeneration.

It is a fact not without significance that the Bible contains no creed. It contains statements of truth, but no brief summary of all truth. No two writers state the truth in the same way. The theology of John differs from that of Paul, and both from that of James. Each disciple is left free to see the light with his own eyes, and to proclaim it with his own tongue. As a result, we have truth presented, as it were, in different languages, and so adapted to different needs. In the Apostolic age the one condition of admission to the Church was loyalty to Christ—not to a definition of Christ, which is a very different matter, but to Christ himself—and each loyal subject was then left free to see the truth as God gave him vision, and to utter the truth as God gave him utterance.

To a creed, then, as a statement of what the person making or accepting it believes, there is no objection. On the contrary, it is important that men should form the habit of thinking with a purpose, and that they should formulate the results of their thinking, both for their own sake and for the sake of others. To the use of either ancient or modern statements of belief, and to their recital in worship by those who believe them, there is no objection. On the contrary, such use of an ancient statement of belief witnesses to the historic continuity and to the present unity of the Church, and keeps also in the memory those results of religious thinking upon which the Church at large is agreed. All this is valuable. But to a creed as a statement of what men must believe in order to be acceptable with God or accepted in his Church, and to a creed as assuming to be a brief summary of all divine truth, there is very great objection. And the first is the use which has been commonly made of creeds, and the second is the meaning which has been commonly attached to the word.

The Vacation Fund

SPECIAL GIFT

From an Unknown Friend	$5,000 00

FOR VACATION EXPENSES

Previously acknowledged	$6,402 99
V., Mantoloking, N. J	20 00
P. D	2 00
A Thank-Offering	5 00
A Friend	5 00
M. E. T., Southold, N. Y	3 00
A Wisconsin Girl	4 00
Cotocheset C. E. Society, Wianno, Mass	12 50
	$11,454 49
One Membership	1 00
Total	$11,455 49

The Spectator

It was on a warm Saturday that the Spectator came to Stratford and found the streets thronged with people, the coach-horns sounding merrily, and a note of gayety in the air. The holiday air of a drowsy Saturday afternoon seemed to rest on the whole countryside, and the sturdy country life of to-day held the field with a kind of aggressive jollity. At the moment, this intrusion of the interests and amusements of to-day in a place sacred to memories of three centuries ago disturbed and offended the Spectator. He felt a great desire to clear the streets and silence the hubbub; to drive the eager life of to-day back from the channels where life flowed deep and full so many years ago. And yet this apparent indifference to the past which the modern pilgrim often feels in historic places is at heart the evidence of the human reality of the significant and impressive careers and achievements once and forever associated with them.

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Shakespeare was not only one of the greatest of the children of men; he was also a man among men, immersed in the affairs of life, involved in its relations, affected by its conditions. When a man's fame has become so transcendent as that which finds its sanctuary beside the slow-moving Avon, there is danger that the human heart in which these marvelous secrets of experience were discovered may be forgotten in the presence of a genius so splendid and so comprehensive. In fact, it was with the hope of touching the man Shakespeare that the Spectator came to Stratford; and here was the old town alive in home and market and street as in the poet's time; the tides of activity in full sweep; the old passions and ambitions in full play; the old ways and joys and cares still warm and real; the life of the town unbroken and unspent. In such an atmosphere, with what we rashly call common things about him, the Spectator found what he sought.

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When the Spectator found himself under the hospitable roof of the delightful Inn which two American writers have commemorated in papers full of the sentiment of the old town and the old time, the past began to move into the foreground of time, and the present insensibly made way for the dear and august memories of Shakespeare's home and life. The greatest of poets was so essentially a dramatist and so rarely unveiled himself after the manner of the lyric poet; he belongs to an age already so remote; so little is known of the details of his career, and so much of that which is known has been questioned, that to many readers he is little more than an illustrious name. To one, however, who has lived with him, entered into his view of life, felt the spell of his exquisite genius expressed in forms of such magical charm, in lines of such ravishing beauty, Shakespeare gradually defines himself as distinctly as Wordsworth or Keats. Such art as his finds rootage in a great soul, and reveals that soul to those to whom supreme beauty must always be a revelation of inward nobility and splendor of spiritual endowment. No magic of verbal felicity ever compassed such perfection of thought, identified with and merged in loveliness of image, phrase, and sound; no irresponsible improviser ever dropped plummet into such depths of human experience; no idle singer ever caught the inner harmonies and discords of the human spirit with such tender and masterful skill. Here is a workmanship born of communion with the hidden things of the heart; for to a man great in himself such secrets are revealed, and to none other. There are no accidents in art, as there are none in nature; behind the great work the great man always hides himself.

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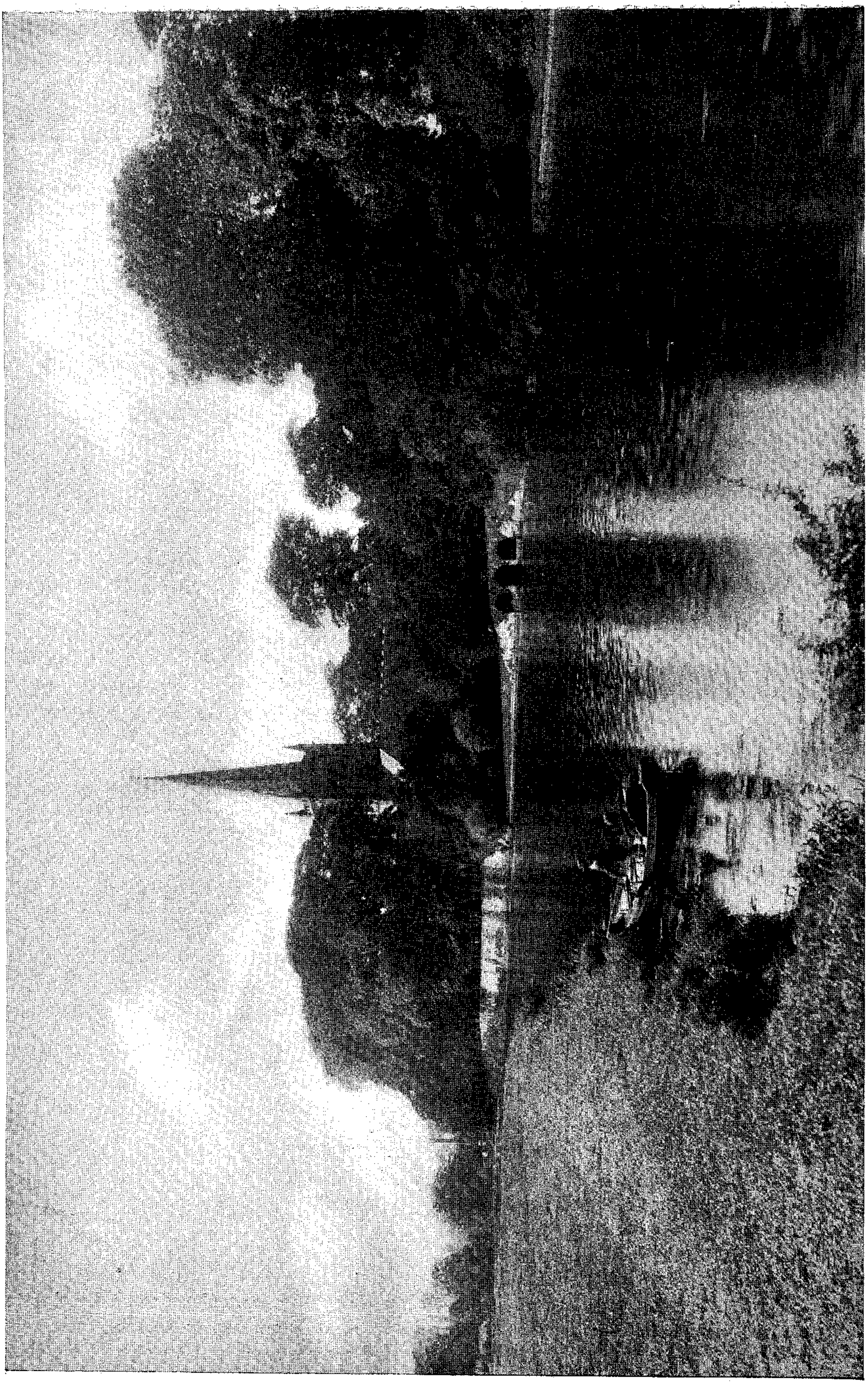
This man once lived in Stratford; dreamed the dreams of the young imagination there; felt the depths of life stirring there in the emotions of his own soul; heard the song of the nightingale by the river, and watched the lark rising silently out of the sweet places of the meadow to become in the far heaven a visible and audible melody; roamed through the fields when the scent of the hawthorn hedges was in the balmy night; found that hill, not far distant, where the wild thyme grows; came back, solitary and dreaming, when the moon looked down upon its image in the quiet river; and paused, perchance, to think of human destiny in the shadows of the ancient limes that overarch the walk to the church. Here is the house in which he was born; the church in which he was christened; the old school on the well-worn forms of which he thumbed the ancient text-books; the house where he dreamed the dream of love; the homes of his kin-



SHAKESPEARE'S CHURCH

dred and friends; the place where he made his home in those last crowning years of his marvelous career, when, London and the theater far away and all the stir and tumult of his active career, he wrote "The Tempest" and "Cymbeline" in the fullness of his power and the ripeness of years great alike in thought and toil; here he died; and here he sleeps within the chancel-rail of the church to which his presence has given an interest beyond that which attaches to the greatest cathedral.

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The hour was late and the town had fallen into silence when the Spectator saw Shakespeare's Stratford with two lovers of the poet, who knew the place better, perhaps, than any other men now living; one, the charming writer whose grace of style and tender sentiment have touched the old places with a hand at once sure and loving, and the other a scholar and antiquarian in whose memory and imagination the town of Shakespeare's youth still lives as Shakespeare saw it. The soft moonlight lent enchantment to a scene rich beyond all places in England in the deathless associations of poetry. The venerable church, with the dead sleeping about it, was touched with infinite peace, and the flow of the moonlit river deepened the stillness. It was easy, in that delicious hour of silence, to bring back the vanished past and recall the illustrious dead. Here lay the background out of which issued that exquisite beauty of imperishable speech; the beauty of a world which rose through the imagination of the poet in a thousand touches of description, a thousand images which give nature back to herself in the mirror of art as the river gives back the moon to the heaven in which it shines.

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Then the way lay along the quiet road and across the sleeping meadows to the cottage at Shottery, buried in vines and flooded with soft light. Beyond rose the gentle hill where the wild thyme still distills its fragrance as in the days when the lovers sought it under such a moon, in such an enchantment of summer and night. Then back again through the sleeping town to pause before the houses in which Shakespeare's daughter lived, to stand by the foundations of the home which he made for himself, to look in at the windows of the grammar-school where he studied, to hear the names of his friends, to gather in one coherent whole the memories of his career, his work, his daily life, which still survive in the home of his boyhood and of his closing years. In such an atmosphere and in such companionship the Stratford of to-day gave place to the Stratford of three centuries ago, and the most elusive of personalities became a living man among men; honorable, just, affectionate, dealing with affairs, bound by the sweetness of the universal ties, and touched by the sorrows and joys of our common human life.

❀

It was a memorable night, but it does not stand alone in the Spectator's memory. One other impression lives with and is inseparable from it: a walk across the Welcome Hills in the late afternoon. Through "kissing-gates," over stiles, across the fields, runs the path; after the English fashion, far from the dust and noise of the highway. The meadows are green and soft in the lengthening shadows; there are long stretches of undulating sward; there are bosky dells where the night is gently gathering; there are vistas through the hills of the lovely Warwickshire landscape; everywhere long lines of hedges, deep masses of foliage; softness, loveliness, silence. Yonder are the chimneys of Charlecote House; here are the great trees which were once part of the Forest of Arden; on this spot lived Shakespeare's friend, John-a-Combe. The path leads on through the woods, across the meadows; passes the lane through which Charles I. once rode, a fugitive from his own subjects; takes one under the hedges of Clopton House, so long identified with local history; and beyond are the lights of Stratford, shining as Shakespeare saw them on many a night as calm and sweet. In such a landscape, amid scenes touched with that beauty which is born of ancient intimacy between man and nature, lived, dreamed, and died the greatest poet who has yet appeared among men; and there he sleeps beside the river, in the keeping of the venerable church which his dust has made a sacred place for all time.

Whether any particular day shall bring to you more of happiness or suffering is largely beyond your power to determine. Whether each day of your life shall give happiness or suffering rests with yourself.—*George S. Merriam.*

AT THE BEND IN THE ROAD

A STORY of THE REVOLUTION

BY EVERETT T. TOMLINSON

"WILLIAM, Bartly, James, John, Edmund, Marshall, Matthew."

So Mother Martin was accustomed to call the roll of her seven stalwart sons, frequently declaring that it was necessary for her to go through the entire list before she found the name of the one she especially desired to summon. The boys laughed good-naturedly at her confusion of their names, and also at her declaration that it arose from the fact that each boy held the deepest place in her affection, and that she could not call one without mentioning them all.

In her home near Ninety-Six, in South Carolina, in the summer of 1781, not one of her sons would have answered to the roll-call, however. Matthew, the youngest and "the baby" of the family, had been shot through the heart in the siege of Augusta, and never again would hear or heed his widowed mother's voice. The others were all in the army of General Greene, and their mother had bidden them go, pressing each to her heart as she bade them farewell, and declaring that if she had seven more sons she would give them all to her struggling country. Only her two daughters-in-law, the wives of William and Bartly, who dwelt with their mother-in-law, as Ruth and Orpah one time dwelt with Naomi, had been witnesses of her terrible anguish when the boys were gone and the three women were compelled to defend themselves in their lonely home.

And no region, except the "neutral ground" near New York, was so filled with danger. Neighbor turned against neighbor, and hangings, murders, and plunderings were of almost daily occurrence.

The three women had carefully concealed their few pieces of silver, and up to the time of this story, a morning in June, had not been molested, save as occasionally they had been compelled to feed from their scanty store of provisions some marauding tories or stragglers from the British army. From time to time the boys sent them word of the wonderful success which was attending the efforts of Nathanael Greene. They knew that he had divided his forces and compelled Cornwallis to follow his example; for the British leader was now aware that he could not leave Morgan and attack Greene without losing his hold on the interior; while if he followed Morgan, Greene would be sure to pounce upon Charleston and cut him off from the coast. The battles of the Cowpens, Guilford Court-House, and Hobkirk's Hill had followed; and while the victories apparently rested with the British, none knew better than Lord Cornwallis himself that the Americans were regaining South Carolina; and at last only the famous fort of Ninety-Six remained as a stronghold of the redcoats.

Before Ninety-Six, Greene and his men entered into the long siege of twenty-seven days; but at last, when the sharp final attack had failed, and word had been received that Rawdon was approaching with a strong force, Greene raised the siege and began another of those wonderful retreats of his, which, while apparently tokens of defeat, were really the methods by which he led on his foes, and weakened and almost destroyed their armies. Word of all this had been received at the widow Martin's home, and while there was rejoicing over the fact that the six boys were still unharmed, there was also a constant anxiety as to what each day might bring forth.

The June morning was hot and oppressive. Only the hum of insects broke in upon the stillness, for the birds were silent under the burning heat. The women moved about the house engaged in their few homely duties, but they spoke few words to one another, and frequently one of them would step out upon the piazza and gaze long and earnestly up and down the road. The others would look questioningly at her when she re-entered the house, but the watcher would shake her head in reply to the unspoken questions, and the housework would be resumed.

Hannah, William's wife, had gone for a moment to the piazza to renew the observations which Martha, the wife of Bartly, had made a few moments before. As she did not return, Martha, unable to endure the uncertainty, dropped her broom and joined her sister.

"What is it, Hannah?" she said as she approached.

"There's some one coming. He's on horseback, and has just turned into the lane. There, you can see him now down by the hawthorn bushes."

Martha followed Hannah's directions, and could plainly see the approaching horseman. But how strangely he was riding! He was leaning forward, and with one arm was clasping the neck of the horse, while the other apparently hung useless by his side. He had not looked up once since he entered the lane.

A great fear suddenly seized their hearts, and their pale faces needed no explanation to their mother, who now joined them and waited in silence for the horseman to approach.

"'Tis neighbor Collins," said Mrs. Martin, soon recognizing the man as one who had dwelt near her, and had gone with her sons to join Greene's army. "I fear he is the bearer of evil tidings."

Her daughters plainly shared in her fear, and their pale faces became paler; nor was their alarm the less when the horse stopped before them. The rider's face was covered with dust and blood, through which the perspiration had made its way and increased the ghastliness of his appearance. His arm hung useless by his side, and it was plain that he was suffering. For a moment no one spoke, so great was the fear in the heart of each; then Hannah, darting suddenly forward, exclaimed, "Is it William, Mr. Collins?"

"Is it Bartly?" said Martha.

"Is it the boys?" added the mother, before the man could reply to either question.

"No," replied the man, for the first time lifting his blood-stained face and looking about him. "No; I left the boys all right in Greene's camp. I'm wounded, badly wounded, I fear. If you'll help me down from my horse, I'll tell you all about it."

Relieved of their great fear, Martha and her mother eagerly assisted the wounded man to dismount, and almost carried him into the house, while Hannah took his horse and led him within the shelter of the forest, for nothing would be long safe in the barn. Their own horses and cattle had long since been carried away by the bands of tories, and the great trees of the forest adjoining the place were the only refuge now. As soon as she had looked carefully to the wants of the horse, Hannah hastened back into the house. Mr. Collins lay upon the rude couch, and as she entered the room, Hannah heard him relating his adventure.

"The way of it was this," said the suffering man, speaking with difficulty. "Word had been received in camp that a messenger was coming up this road with something for Colonel Rawdon, from Colonel Balfour at Charleston. It was known that it was something of great importance, and General Greene is in such a plight that he doesn't know what to do. His life, and that of all his men, may hang on the letter that courier has." Mr. Collins stopped for a moment as if he could not go on. Hannah bathed his face with cold water, while Martha fanned him, but neither spoke.

In a few moments the wounded man resumed his story. "So anxious was the General to get that letter that he dispatched me, with four others, to come up the road and seize the courier when he came along, if we could. We got along all right till we came to Six-Mile Run down here, where a band of a dozen tories set on us. We were taken without a moment's warning, and before I knew what was going on I had a cut on the head and another on the arm. They were all mounted, you see, and rode right in amongst us before we had a minute's warning. I think my arm's broken, don't you?"

"Yes," replied Mother Martin, "I think it is. The cut on your head will soon heal, but the arm's broken, beyond a doubt."

Mr. Collins groaned as he said, "And the men who were with me are all scattered, and that letter will not be taken! What will become of General Greene! And he was depending upon me."

"Did you say the courier was coming up this road?" inquired Hannah.

"Yes; we had positive knowledge as to that."

"Do you know at what time he was expected?"

"No; that, of course, we didn't know, except that the word we had was that he'd be along some time before dark."

Hannah said nothing more, as she assisted her mother in caring for the wounded man. As soon as she was satisfied that all in their power had been done for him, she beckoned to Martha, and left the room. Her sister soon joined her on the piazza, and as she came near, Hannah said, gently: "Martha, you and I must get that letter."

"Get what letter?"

"The letter that courier has."

"I don't understand you. Do you mean that we must capture the courier?"

"Yes."

"I never can. You're bolder than I, Hannah, but that's too bold. What can two women do? We never can take him."

"We've just got to take him, Martha. Think of Bartly. Mr. Collins tells us that his very life may depend upon getting that letter. We can do it, I know; and if we can, we must."

"How?"

Hannah approached nearer to Martha, and whispered her plan in her ear. Martha listened attentively, and her face was scarlet when her sister ceased. "Oh, Hannah, I don't see how I can! It's too bold every way."

"Yes, you can," said Hannah, positively. "You'll think of Bartly, and I'll think of William, and we'll be bold as lions."

"I'll try," said Martha. "You'll have to be the leader, though, Hannah."

"I'll be the leader. Now we must set about it at once. Mother mustn't hear a word of it till it's all over. I'll go in and arrange matters with her, while you go right up to your room and get ready. I'll be up in a minute, for we don't want to lose any time."

Martha at once left the piazza, and Hannah entered the room where the wounded man lay. "Mother," she said in a low whisper, "do you think you could get on alone with Mr. Collins for a time?"

"Yes. What is it, Hannah?"

"Nothing, except that Martha and I want to go down the road and watch. If we should be gone long, don't be alarmed."

"You'll be careful not to attract attention, won't you?"

"Never fear about that," replied Hannah, stooping and kissing her mother before she hurriedly left the room. Mother Martin followed her with wistful eyes, for she knew Hannah so well that she was satisfied that she had some project of importance in mind.

In a few minutes there was a timid rap on the door of Hannah's room, and she opened it just far enough to permit her sister to enter, when she quickly closed and bolted it once more.

"Martha, you make a real good-looking man," she said as she turned and faced her.

"Oh, don't, Hannah! It doesn't seem as if I could go out-of-doors in these clothes!"

Martha's face was scarlet, although she quietly added, "But I'm going. It's Bartly who makes me, though I wonder what he'd think if he were to see me now!"

"He'd be proud of you," replied Hannah, as she finished putting her own husband's garments on. "Now, Martha, we'll slip out the back door, and go across lots down to the bend. That'll be the best place, for we can keep watch in both directions. We'll have to take five guns, the two loaded, and the three that are no good."

"What for?" inquired Martha, the color now leaving her face.

"I'll soon show you. You carry one that is loaded and one that's not, and I'll take the other three. Come on, now."

The door was opened carefully, and as soon as they knew they were not observed the two young women, dressed in their strange garb, and with their guns, crept silently down the stairs and out through the back door. The forest was soon gained, and then Hannah said:

"We've done well, Martha, so far. Now if we can keep it up we're all right. We'll go straight to the bend. You're not afraid now, are you?"

"Yes; but I'm going on. I'm thinking of Bartly."

"And William, and the boys, and mother, and General Greene, and the colonies," replied Hannah. "Come on!"

They passed safely through the forest and the open lot, and gained the shelter of the bushes that lined the bend in the road. Martha was silent now, and the color was gone from her face, but there was a tightening of the lips which made Hannah nod her head with pleasure.

Hannah stepped into the road and looked keenly in each direction. No one could be seen, and, satisfied that the courier had not yet gone by, she proceeded rapidly to carry out the details of her plan. Two of the empty guns were placed behind the bushes on one side of the road, their stocks held up by the limbs of trees, and the barrels left projecting beyond the leaves into the road.

On the opposite side she placed the other empty gun, similarly arranged, and also told Martha to take her stand there, with her gun also projecting into the road.

"I see what you wanted those empty guns for now," said Martha.

"Yes, they'll do as well as if they were loaded."

The arrangement was complete now, and there was nothing to be done except to wait for the coming of the courier. The hours passed, the sun climbed higher in the heavens, and the heat became more and more intense. But no one passed, and the vigil was unbroken. The silence became oppressive, and the great fear in the hearts of the two women found no relief.

"Hannah," whispered Martha at last, when three hours must have passed.

"What is it, Martha?"

"Do you think they'll shoot us?"

"No, I don't think so; still, we must be brave."

"Hannah, if anything happens to me, and you escape, you'll tell Bartly, won't you?"

"Oh, Martha!" replied Hannah, rising from her seat on the ground and clasping her sister in her arms. "Oh, Martha, don't talk so! We're doing our duty, and will pray God to let no evil befall us. Do you want to go back to the house?"

"No," replied Martha, quietly, returning the embrace and mingling her tears with her sister's. The guns seemed sadly out of place in the scene, and the two young women themselves appeared to be far from belonging there. In a few moments their tears were dried, and the look of determination had returned upon Hannah's face.

"I'll step out into the road and see what I can see. There's nothing in sight yet," she said, as she returned to Martha's side.

The long vigil continued. The insects darted about in clouds, but no sounds were heard, even the wind in the tree-tops having ceased.

Again Hannah stepped forth into the road. This time she was gone but a moment, and, as she hastily returned to the shelter of the bushes, she said: "Martha, there are three men coming. I think it is the courier and two men with him."

Martha's face became deadly white, but she did not speak, and Hannah knew by her expression that she could depend upon her, and she gave her undivided attention to the approaching men. She could see them now; the man in the center had no uniform, but the scarlet coat on each of the men who were riding with him proclaimed the side to which they belonged. Without doubt it was the courier with two officers as guards. This was more than she had counted upon, but it was too late to turn back now.

On swept the three strangers, their horses dripping with foam, although they were not running rapidly, and the men seemed to be weary from their long ride. Steadily on and on they came, and Hannah felt as if she could hardly breathe in her excitement. They were almost within the bend now, and in a moment it would be too late. She must act at once, if at all, and, striving vainly to swallow the lump in her throat, she rushed into the road and leveled her gun at the approaching men.

"Halt!"

The three men brought their horses to a sudden standstill. "What's the meaning of this, you young traitor?" said one of the officers, his hand creeping slowly toward the pistols in his belt, as he spoke.

"Don't touch that pistol! I'll call on my men to fire! Sergeant, you hear me, don't you?"

"We hear," came a reply from the bushes. The tone was not very warlike, but the startled men were not critical, and, besides, there were gun-barrels peering out from the bushes on either side of the road. For a moment not a word was spoken. The gun before them was not lowered, and it was plain to the men that it was no joke being played upon them.

"Trapped!" muttered one of the officers. "Well, young man, what do you propose to do?"

"First, I want that letter Colonel Balfour has dispatched by this courier."

The courier hesitated, and glanced at his companions before he replied. There was an expression of anger and determination on their faces, and as the officer's hand again stole slowly towards the pistol in his belt, Hannah's heart almost ceased to beat, and her knees were trembling so that she could hardly stand. Was all her bold venture to be in vain?

Just then a clicking within the bushes was heard, which sounded very like the lock of a gun, and at a nod from one of the men the courier advanced and gave up the letter, and Hannah breathed more easily.

"Now I want you to turn back in your tracks, and not stop before you've come up with Rawdon's men, who are advancing, I happen to know, a few miles up the road."

Hannah's tone was bold, but all her fears returned when she saw that again the men hesitated. Had they suspected the ruse? Would they dash ahead and ride her down, and then, when they saw that no shots were fired, return and gain possession of the letter once more? In that event they might discover the disguise; and a new fear came to the desperate woman. She had not taken her eyes from the men before her, however, and her musket was still at her shoulder.

The officers glanced at each other, and the sight of those motionless gun-barrels on either side of the road could not be concealed; and, moved as by a common impulse, the trio wheeled and started swiftly up the road. Hannah stood and watched them until they disappeared.

And yet not quite, for there in her hand was the letter; and, recalled by the sight, Hannah quickly called to her sister, and the two women swiftly began to retrace their way to the house. Martha was trembling like a leaf, but on Hannah's cheeks there was a bright red spot that was not born of the heat of that hot June day.

"We're not through yet," said Hannah as they entered the house.

"What more can be done? You have the letter; is not that enough?"

"'Tis but the beginning. The harder task is yet before us."

"I must go to my room," said Martha, "before I stand before neighbor Collins in my husband's garb. But I know not what more we can do, Hannah."

Hannah made no reply as she left her sister and entered the room in which she had left her mother-in-law and neighbor Collins. Her story had just been completed when Martha entered in time to hear her say, "'Tis not all done, however. Your horse is here, neighbor Collins, and I must carry that letter to General Greene."

"That you will not," said Mr. Collins, quickly. "I am greatly refreshed now, and, besides, I must seek a surgeon's aid for my broken arm. There is a band of Sumter's men not five miles from here, and I can go as far as that. They will forward the letter to General Greene and provide as well for me."

Mr. Collins had risen from the couch in his eagerness, and although Mother Martin and Martha added their words to his, Hannah still hesitated.

"It is not seemly for you to ride forth clad in a man's attire," said Mr. Collins at last, and then Hannah yielded. The horse was brought out of the forest; the wounded man was assisted into the saddle and soon disappeared up the road.

Still Hannah Martin was troubled. At times she blamed herself for intrusting such a valuable letter to a wounded and suffering man. The reaction from the terrible strain through which she had passed, and the uncertainty concerning the letter she knew Nathanael Greene so much desired to obtain, also combined to render her restless and anxious. Sleep did not come that night, and she spent much of the following morning on the piazza looking for the approach of soldiers, or of some one who could give her some information concerning the movements of the armies. But no one came.

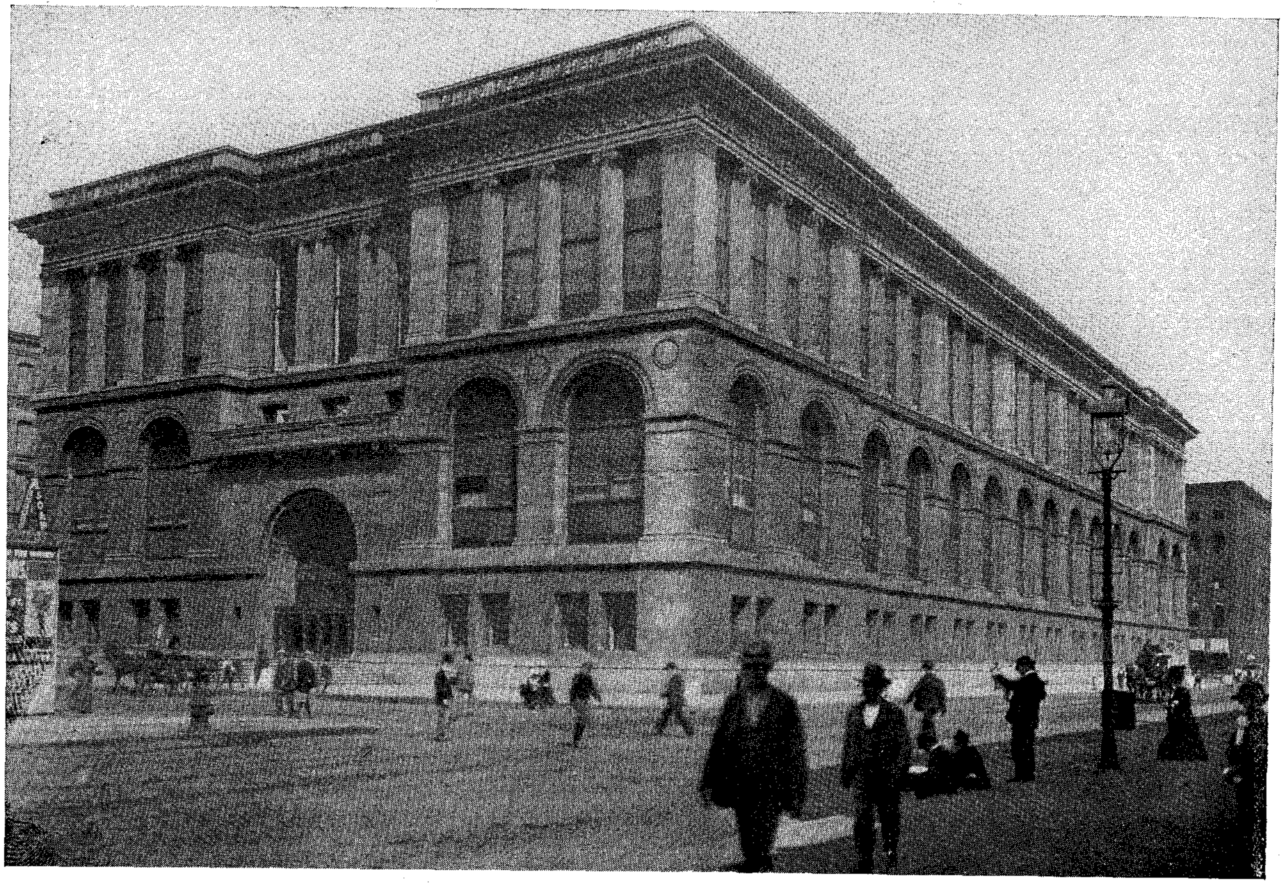
Just before the sun set, however, a band of men swept into sight. The numbers increased, and when they marched past the house of the widow Martin the three women knew that it was Greene's army in swift pursuit of Rawdon's men. The country people were sadly perplexed by the sudden transformation of the pursued into pursuers; but, then, they knew nothing of a letter General Greene had received on the preceding day—a letter not designed for him, but one which Colonel Balfour had dispatched from Charleston by a courier to Colonel Rawdon to inform him that Stewart had been recalled from the field, and that Rawdon must return in all haste. The courier, indeed, had delivered the letter, but not to Colonel Rawdon, for, as he afterwards explained, "he had been held up by two rebel boys and compelled to surrender the missive." Somehow the letter had come into the possession of General Greene, and as he passed Hannah Martin standing on the piazza of the widow Martin's house he had it upon his person, though he knew not at the time the part the woman had played in gaining it, nor did she know that it was then in his possession.

It was because of that letter that he had directed his hospital and heavy baggage to be forwarded to Camden, and sent Lee and Marion and Sumter to gain the front of Balfour's men, who were then on the march for Friday's Ferry; while he himself set forth with all due speed to pursue the retreating Rawdon.

All this Hannah Martin learned from her husband when he fell out of the ranks for a few moments as the army passed his home; and when he hastened to rejoin his companions, and disappeared beyond the bend in the road, she said to her sister-in-law:

"They would never have entered that bend if you and I had not gone there before them, Martha."

And it is more than doubtful whether they ever would.



THE NEW CHICAGO PUBLIC LIBRARY

AN EGYPTIAN MOTTO IN THE FRIEZE OF THE ENTRANCE HALL OF THE CHICAGO PUBLIC LIBRARY

The translation reads: "I will make thee to love literature, thy mother; I will make its beauties pass before thee" (Tuauuse-Kharthai). From a photograph loaned by the Tiffany Glass and Decorating Company, New York.

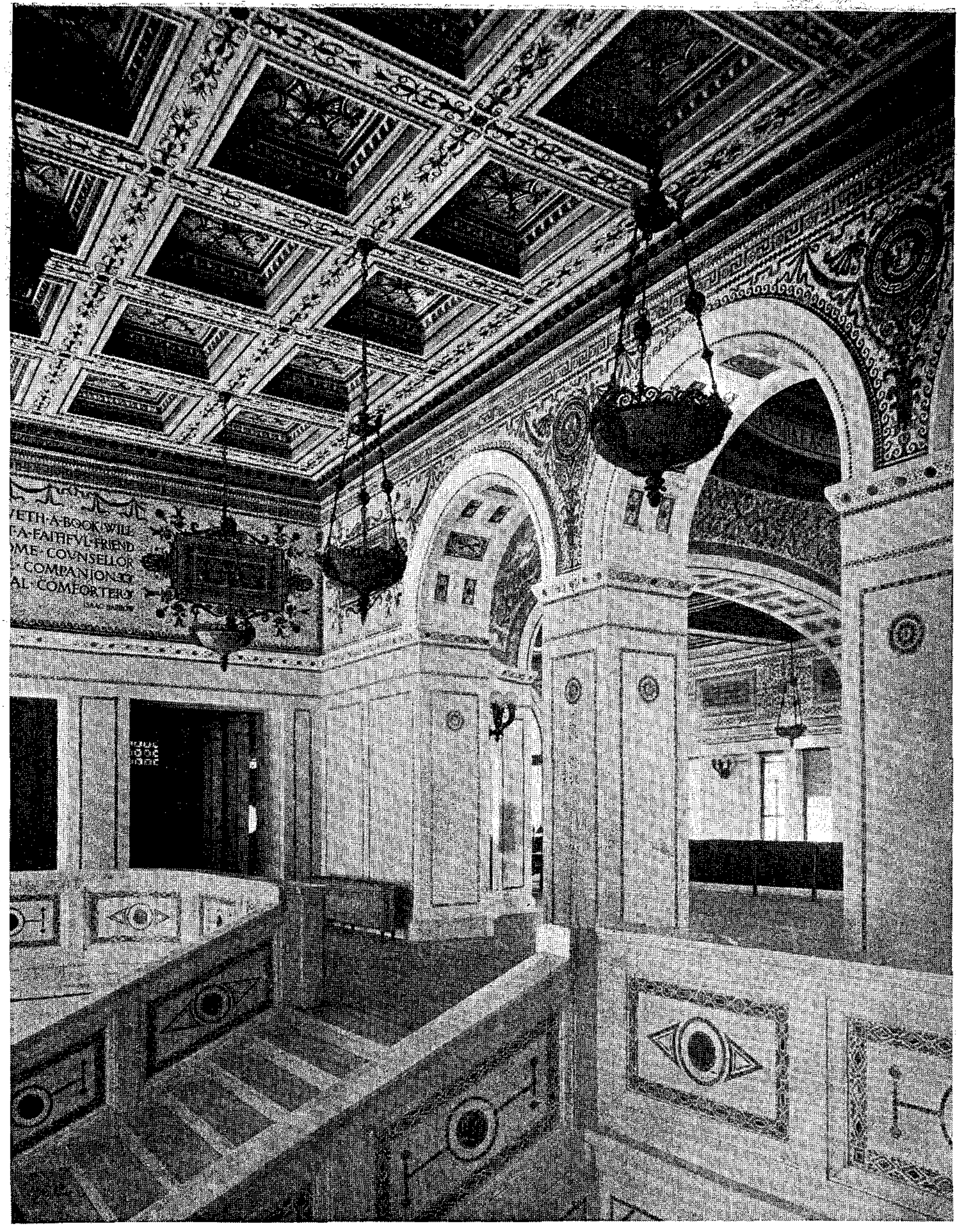
Chicago's New Public Library Building

By Forrest Crissey

UPON ground long occupied by a pioneer military post and Indian Agency, Chicago now dedicates a free public library building costing $2,000,000, and worthy of comparison with any structure of its kind, erected under municipal auspices, in the United States. In at least one particular this edifice is of international interest, and is unique in the history of modern architecture. Its interior walls are embellished with a greater quantity of fine glass and marble mosaic work than has been put into any other building since the completion, in the thirteenth century, of the celebrated cruciform cathedral at Monreale, Sicily. The household of books sheltered by this splendid structure enjoys a larger circulation than that of any other library in America, and it is wholly probable that, from a utilitarian standpoint, this building represents the highest achievement which has yet been attained in library construction.

To the people of Chicago the completion of this noble edifice has a significance which cannot well be appreciated by those who are not citizens of that municipality. Peculiar circumstances, independent of ordinary civic pride, have conspired to make, in the dedication of this building, a more powerful appeal to local sentiment than has ever been produced by the erection of any public edifice in the entire history of the city. The completion of the structure stands for the triumph of almost twenty years of patient and unremitting toil on the part of those far-seeing and public-spirited citizens who had at heart the highest intellectual interests of their community, and who were able to anticipate something of the future greatness of their municipality. Early in the eighties the present site of the Chicago Public Library building was selected for the purpose which it now serves, and since that time the most obstinate and vexatious opposition and discouragements have failed to check the ardor or dim the devotion of those who were determined that an adequate library should adorn the choicest section of the old Fort Dearborn Military Reservation, which was officially established in 1804 and abandoned as a post in 1839. The location is a commanding one in the business center of the city, overlooking a broad boulevard used exclusively for pleasure driving, and the harbor front. As the lake shore, at this point, is soon to be cleared of buildings and converted into a beautiful park, the view from the windows of the library will be almost ideal, embracing a foreground of lawn and landscape offset by the harbor's ships of commerce and fleets of pleasure craft, with breakwater piers, cribs, and lighthouses in the middle distance, and the imposing expanse of Lake Michigan, stretching away to the far horizon-line, as a background.

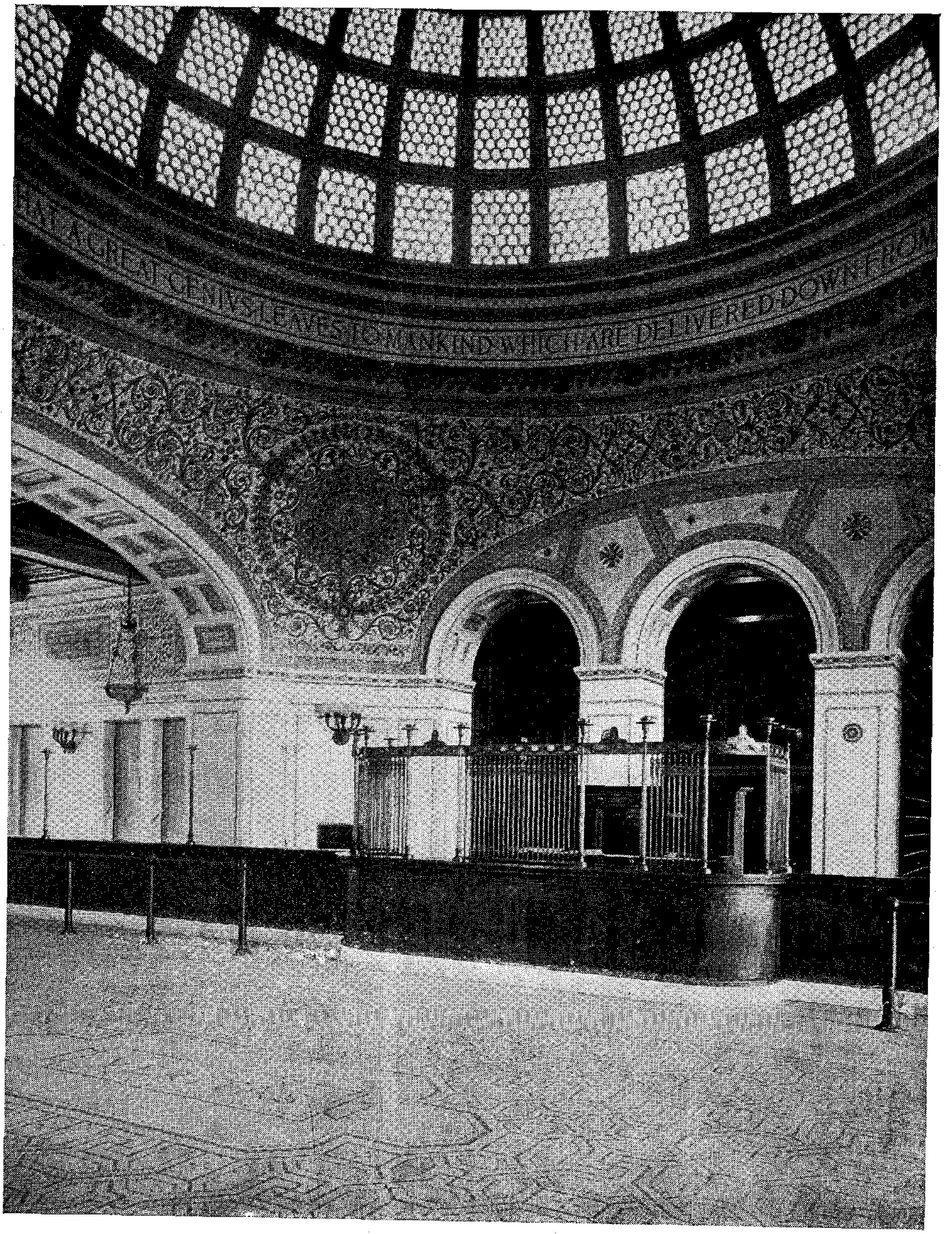
Appropriate to so varied a setting is the Roman classic style of architecture in which the exterior is conceived. While its general lines are stately and imposing, it admits of sufficient ornamentation to avoid the effect of coldness or rigid severity. The entrances are from Washington Street at the south and



ENTRANCE TO THE DISTRIBUTING-ROOM

This and the following illustration are from photographs taken expressly for The Outlook by Mr. Leo Weil, of Chicago.

Randolph Street at the north, the entire eastern frontage on Michigan Avenue, one block in length, being unbroken save by the long rows of windows. This gives to the lakeward elevation an appearance of massiveness which is emphasized by a simpler and somewhat more classic style of ornamentation than that which characterizes the ends of the building. The foundation terminating at the sills of the ground-floor windows is of granite. Then begins the use of blue Bedford stone in a simple stylobate sustaining the majestic windows which embrace both the first and second floors. These are crowned with heavy Roman arches, embellished with elaborate chiseling. Above is a stately colonnade of fluted Ionic pillars with scroll capitals, supporting a heavy entablature and an openwork balustrade. The frieze ornamentations are in richly chiseled wreaths and lions' heads.


HAT A GREAT GENIVS LEAVES TO MANKIND WHICH ARE DELIVERED DOWN FROM

THE DISTRIBUTING-ROOM

The color scheme in this and the preceding illustration is the work of Mr. J. A. Holzer, of the Tiffany Glass and Decorating Company, New York.

Roman influence predominates in the style of the south, or Washington Street, entrance, while classic Greece is as conspicuously recognized in the massive porch by which admittance is had to the north end of the building. The latter entrance is particularly conspicuous, as thousands of citizens are compelled to pass almost under its shadow in making daily use of the city's principal suburban railway line. A massive Roman arch, uncovered by portico, but with soffit delicately chiseled in caissons, forms the Washington Street entrance, which will be most used by those patronizing the circulating department. The outer vestibule or "storm porch" which occupies the lower portion of the archway is entirely of solid cast bronze of the fine quality used in statuary. This statement applies to the bronze work throughout the building. Above the outer doors is an elaborate grille of the same material cast in grape-vine and acanthus decorations.

There is little in the sober exterior of the edifice to suggest the marvelous color effects which are hidden within. The first impression of the visitor as he passes through the south door and steps underneath the grand arch of the interior is that of standing in a rectangular tower of immaculate whiteness arched and spanned with majestic bridges and bordered with balconies of the same dazzling purity as far upward as the eye can reach. But the dominant influence of the snow-white statuary of the marble from the quarries of Carrara is quickly softened by the prevailing green of the glass mosaics with which the soffits of arches, the panels of walls, bridges, and balconies, and the borders of windows and openings are richly encrusted.

For the novelty of the most elaborate display of glass mosaics placed in any building within the last six centuries the people of Chicago are indebted to the financial limitations of the Library Board. The first intention of that body was to have the interior decorations of carved caps and moldings. Finding that the expense of this would exceed the sum at its command for decorative purposes, a careful consideration of other mediums of embellishment was made, with the result that glass mosaic was selected. This introduced the pleasing element of exquisite color effects. How extensively this novel and distinctive medium has been employed may be understood from the statement that in this building the inlays cover a total surface of more than 10,000 square feet.

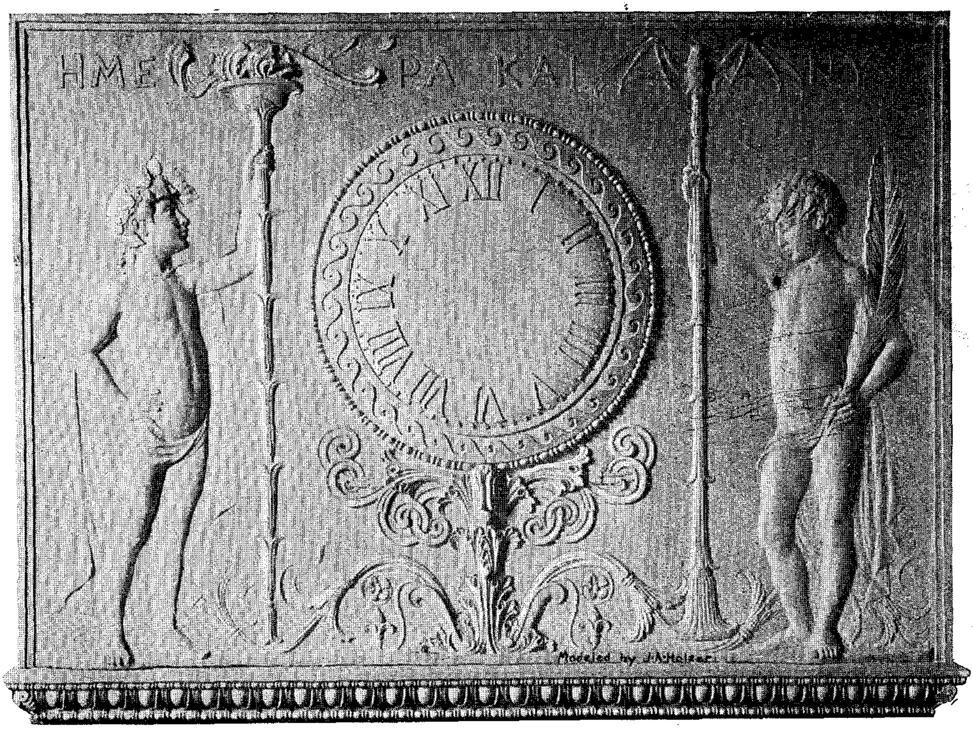
The splendid entrance hall is 52 by 45 feet, and is, in effect, a vast shaft for the accommodation of the stately labyrinths of the grand staircase, which makes its way upward in a bewildering series of broad flights, majestic bridges, and imposing landings. Only by selecting a vantage-point on the floor near the outer door and looking steadfastly up until portions of the deeply coffered and richly colored ceiling are discerned can the visitor fully comprehend the immensity and grandeur of this most impressive section of the building. An attempt to analyze the relative values of the various architectural features of this brilliant display must result in giving chief prominence to the great interior arch and the beautiful bridge. In the soffit of the former are square mosaic panels bearing the names of Livy, Horace, Virgil, Cicero, Plato, and Homer. These are separated by smaller panels of classic emblems, the ancient flambeau being most frequently repeated. In all the decorations of the entrance hall and the distributing-room, which are closely related, the classic Roman feeling is predominant. The names of America's greatest authors, Irving, Hawthorne, Bryant, Whittier, and Longfellow, are enshrined in the mosaics which look down from the soffit of the bridge, which runs parallel with the arch and is sufficiently removed from the front wall to display its every feature under the appropriate advantage of a splendid isolation. Its span is more than 34 feet, and its width in harmonious proportion.

He who leaves the door of the hall without careful examination of the bronze and mosaic work will fail to acquire that appreciation of its substantial dignity to which the material and workmanship of the entire structure are entitled. While the bronze grilles at the right and left of the entrance, directly under the first side landings, are but screens to hide electric switchboards, they give a clue to the character of all the work in this material, in that they are cast of the solid metal from patterns delicately modeled on classic lines. All openings in the hallway have slightly beveled borders, or architraves, ornamented with graceful mosaic traceries, and every joint of the marble slabs is defined by lines of inlaid favril glass, shell, and mother-of-pearl. Disks of royal Irish green marble form the centerpieces of oblong mosaic panels which embellish the balustrades of the staircase, without a single repetition in design. Exposed angles and pier corners of the marble work are from four to six inches in thickness. In this unprecedented solidity of construction is to be found the explanation of the fact that the demands of this building upon the quarries of Carrara, from which the finest white marble for statuary purposes is obtained, were so great that the entire product of these sources was exhausted for a period of more than six months.

A huge bronze relief of the city seal of Chicago is embedded in the center of the hall floor; and at the right and left of the entrance are unobtrusive and finely ornamented bronze tablets bearing the names of the officers and members of the Library Board who have served during the erection of the building. Under the wings of the staircase are handsome grilles of bronze work, having for a centerpiece the familiar Aldine bookplate design of a dolphin and anchor surrounded by a conventional wreath.

Two chaste monolithic newels mark the beginning of the broad staircase, directly opposite the north entrance. At each side of the staircase, extending from the newel to the north wall of the hall, is a long bench, the seat of which is a solid Carrara slab. The purity of the marble is here displayed to perhaps greater advantage than by any other individual piece in the structure.

In the floor of the first landing is an open volume and the inscription "Literis," in marble mosaic. The wall above this landing has six arched windows filled with bronze grilles and surrounded by glass mosaics on the bevel of the architrave. Arms of the stairway lead to balconies on either side, which communicate with the cataloguers' rooms, which occupy the entresol floor.



CLOCK FOR THE CHICAGO PUBLIC LIBRARY

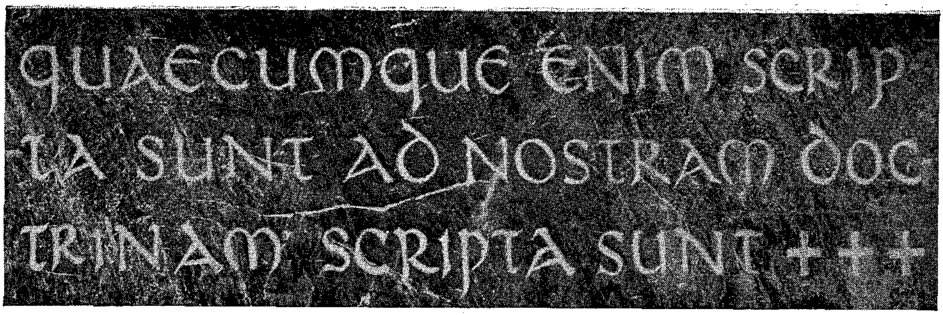
This and the two following illustrations are from photographs loaned by the Tiffany Glass and Decorating Company, New York.

These first balconies also form lateral approaches to the great bridge, from the crest of which, looking to the south and up a short flight of stairs, the first view of the delivery or distributing room is obtained. Only a suggestion of its magnificence is caught by this glimpse from the bridge, but in ascending the stairs the spectator finds himself in a lobby, the massive ceiling of which is twenty-one feet above the landing-level, and is supported by a heavy frieze bearing classic ornaments, panels, and inscriptions in glass mosaic. This ceiling, like those of all other important rooms and halls of the building, is of stucco work, elaborately coffered and ornamented and richly colored.

The massive beam forming the south frieze of the vestibule to the reading-room overhangs the center of the bridge, and projects downward to a depth of some six feet. Increasing richness of color and elaborateness of detail characterize the mosaics of the vestibule frieze, but the walls and pillars of this outer apartment of the delivery-room suite are of the whitest Carrara, to correspond with the staircase. In the center of the south frieze, done in conspicuous mosaic lettering, is the following inscription:

Born MDCCVI.
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.
Died MDCCXC.
Founder of the circulating library.

Terse and appropriate selections from Milton, Bacon, Hugo, and Isaac Barlow, separated



"WHATSOEVER THINGS WERE WRITTEN AFORETIME WERE WRITTEN FOR OUR LEARNING"
(ROMANS XV., 4, VULGATE)

by oblong tablets bearing the names of English and American master spirits of literature, add intellectual impressiveness to the artistic beauty of these decorations.

From the vestibule entrance is had into the rotunda of the delivery-room through three archways. The magnificence of this chief apartment has a cumulative impressiveness as the visitor ascends the thirteen broad white steps leading from the crest of the bridge to the vestibule floor, passes under one of the triple arches, and finally stands in the flood of softened light that pours through the majestic dome. In this splendid apartment—the crown of the building—is indulged the most lavish display of rich materials and ambitious color effects. Yet the chastely classic tone in which the entire structure is conceived is not violated by gorgeousness of coloring or elaborateness of design. In bold letters of gold, banding the base of the dome, which has a diameter of 38 feet, is the most conspicuous inscription in the edifice:

> Books are the legacies that a great genius leaves to mankind, which are delivered down from generation to generation as presents to the posterity of those who are yet unborn.—*Addison.*

Broad elliptical arches divide the delivery-room into three sections: the rotunda, and the east and west spaces. In the pendentives, in the panels of frieze, wainscoting, and arch soffits, and wherever the eye may turn, are emblematic and inscriptional appeals to the studious and book-loving instinct. These are enshrined in a perfection of line and color in which it is not difficult for the sympathetic imagination to recognize a high and harmonious union of literature and art. The broad and elaborate mosaic frieze of the side sections of the delivery-room is set with slabs of green serpentine marble inlaid with inscriptions in the original characters of the various languages. This polyglot array of tablets bears varied and well-chosen testimony to the worth of books and the delights of learning. Some of these are here reproduced, with the translations. Others are:

Persian:

> They who by genius and by power of brain
> The rank of man's enlighteners attain,
> Not even they emerge from this dark night,
> But tell their dreams, and fall asleep again.
> —*Omar Khayyám.*

Chinese:

> He who from day to day recognizes what he has not yet, and from month to month does not forget what he has attained to, may be said indeed to love to learn.—*Confucius.*

Greek:

> The advice which their friends have not the courage to give to kings is found written in books. —*Plutarch.*

Hebrew:

> And the book is delivered to him that is not learned, saying, Read this, I pray thee.—*Isaiah xxix., 12.*

French:

> Men are equal; it is not birth but worth that makes the difference.—*Voltaire.*

Spanish:

> Thus every man of real learning
> Is anxious to increase his lore,
> And feels, in fact, a greater yearning,
> The more he knows, to know the more.
> —*Yriarte.*

Italian:

> Open thy mind to what I now unfold,
> And give it inward keeping. Knowledge comes
> Of learning well retain'd, unfruitful else.
> —*Dante, Paradise, Canto V., 40–41.*

The book-marks of famous printers figure appropriately in the general decorative scheme of the mosaics and the leaded design of the dome glass.

Immediately behind the delivery-room, which is 136 by 49 feet, are the six large stack-rooms, having a present capacity of 600,000 volumes. The stacks are divided

O süsse Stimme! Willkommener Ton
Der Muttersprach in einem fremden Lande

"O SWEET VOICE! MOST WELCOME SOUND OF MOTHER TONGUE IN A FOREIGN LAND"
(GOETHE)

into three stories of seven feet each, the floor of the delivery-room being on a level with that of the middle deck of shelves. Three electric book-lifts will be used in conveying volumes to the reference-room directly above. When all of the space in the building ultimately available for stack purposes is devoted to that use, two million volumes may be shelved.

On the floor above the apartments occupied by the circulating department, the stacks, and the executive officers, are the reference and reading rooms. The former looks eastward upon Lake Michigan, is 139 feet in length and 39 feet in width. Its design is decidedly Grecian. A heavy entablature is supported by classic pillars and pilasters nearly 30 feet in height. Its 22 tables will seat 176 readers. The wainscoting is of Sienna marble, of a shade in fine conformity to the light color of the decorations and furnishings.

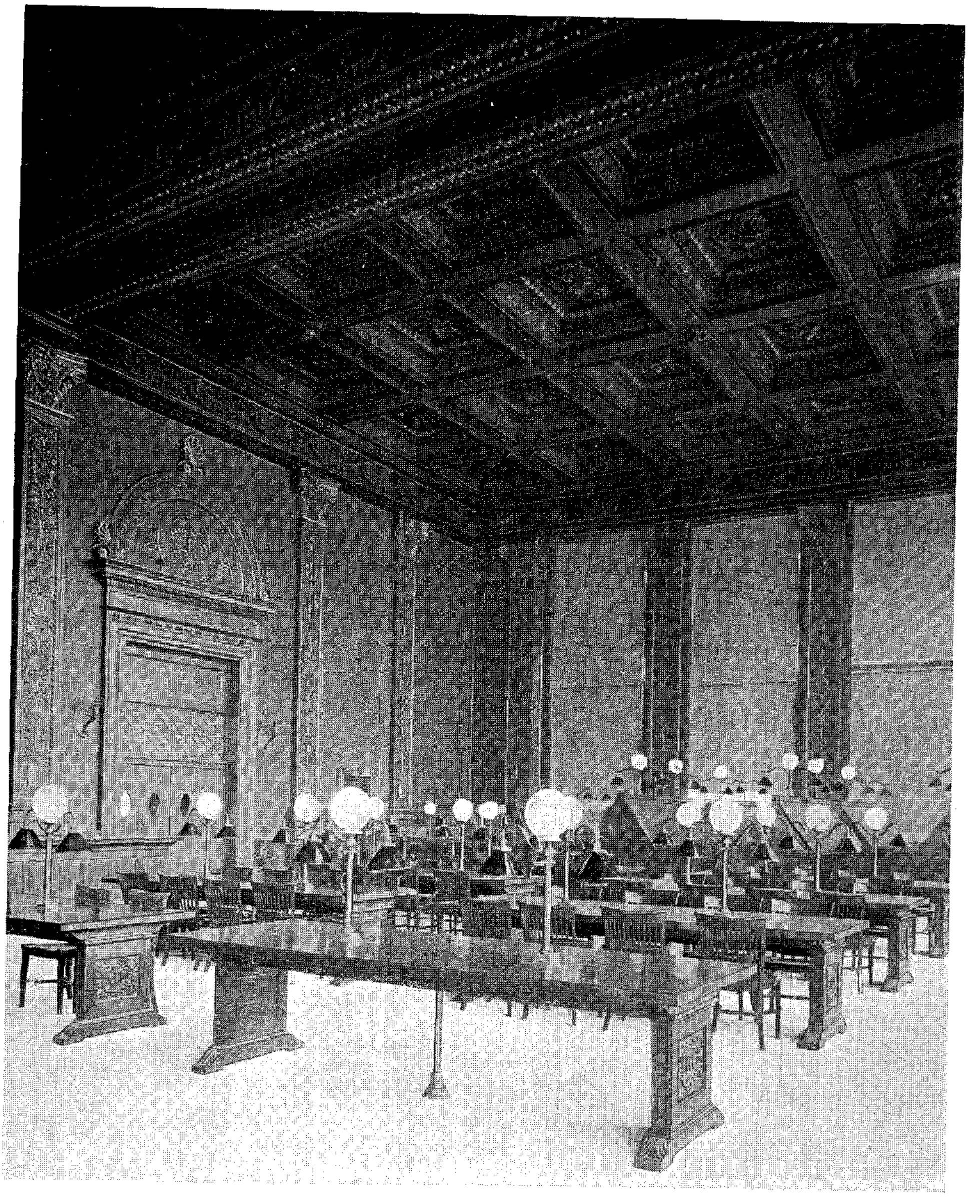
More than 400 persons may simultaneously consult the magazines, periodicals, and newspapers to which the big reading-room, at the north end of this floor, is devoted. The most ornate and pronounced style of the Italian Renaissance prevails in this room, and its color treatment is radical. Although the room is 140 by 55 feet, its vast floor-space is unbroken by the presence of pillars. Walls of dark red, wainscoted with verd antique marble, form the background for pilasters heavily ornamented in relief. All high points in the relief are brought into prominence by metallic colors. Antique gold, yellow, blue, and green are the predominating colors used on the ornamental points of the pilasters, pillars, entablature, and caissons. The general effect is brilliantly metallic.

The northern section of the first floor of the building is devoted to a luxurious and imposing suite of rooms for the use of resident and visiting members of the Grand Army of the Republic. Of these rooms the Memorial Hall is the most important. Its walls are of richest verd antique marble, set in piers with bronze moldings of satin finish and golden hue. Shell-like recesses in the tympani of the arches are provided with pedestals upon which will be placed busts of military and naval heroes who distinguished themselves in the late war. Both dome and ceiling of this hall are elaborate and impressive. A large assembly hall and other rooms for the use of Chicago's war veterans adjoin the great memorial hall. The title to this portion of the building and its site now rests in the Grand Army Hall and Memorial Association of Illinois, but will, after a period of fifty years, revert to the Chicago Public Library.

Large and handsomely appointed rooms, finished in English oak, for the Library Board are on the top or mezzanine floor in the southwest corner of the building. In various portions of the building are sequestered study-rooms for the special use of literary and scientific workers whose tasks demand greater quiet than can be secured in the general reading and reference departments. These, and also the "book hospital," the official cataloguers' apartment, the station delivery quarters, and the numerous other workrooms, are distributed through the building with careful reference to their particular needs and conveniences.

Shepley, Rutan & Coolidge, of Chicago, are the architects of the building. The mosaic work was done by the Tiffany Glass and Decorating Company of New York, Mr. J. A. Holzer, of that firm, being the colorist.

When the news of the great Chicago fire of 1871 reached England, the heart of Thomas Hughes was warmed toward the stricken city. His sympathies were stirred by the intellect-



THE READING-ROOM, CHICAGO PUBLIC LIBRARY

This and the following photograph were taken expressly for The Outlook by Mr. Leo Weil, of Chicago.

ual necessities of Chicago's people, and he called a mass-meeting, November 12, 1871, in the hall of the Social Science Association, London, for the purpose of interesting the English public in making a donation of books to the citizens of the unfortunate American municipality. The Duke of Argyll, Disraeli, Justin McCarthy, W. E. Forster, Carlyle, and other political and literary leaders, gave assurance of their interest in the movement. Finally 7,000 volumes, many of them rare presentation copies bearing the autographs of their authors, were collected by the author of "Tom Brown's School Days" and sent to this city, arriving here in August, 1872. Meantime the citizens of Chicago had initiated the work of establishing their first public library. Its first President was Thomas Hoyne, and its first home was in a room of the building then occupied by the municipal offices, known as the "Old Water-Tank." Frederick H. Hild is the present Librarian. Mr. Azel F. Hatch is now President of the Library Board.

Librarian Hild is authority for the statement that the Chicago Public Library has a larger circulation than any other library in America. His claim is based on the following figures indicating the circulation for the last library year:

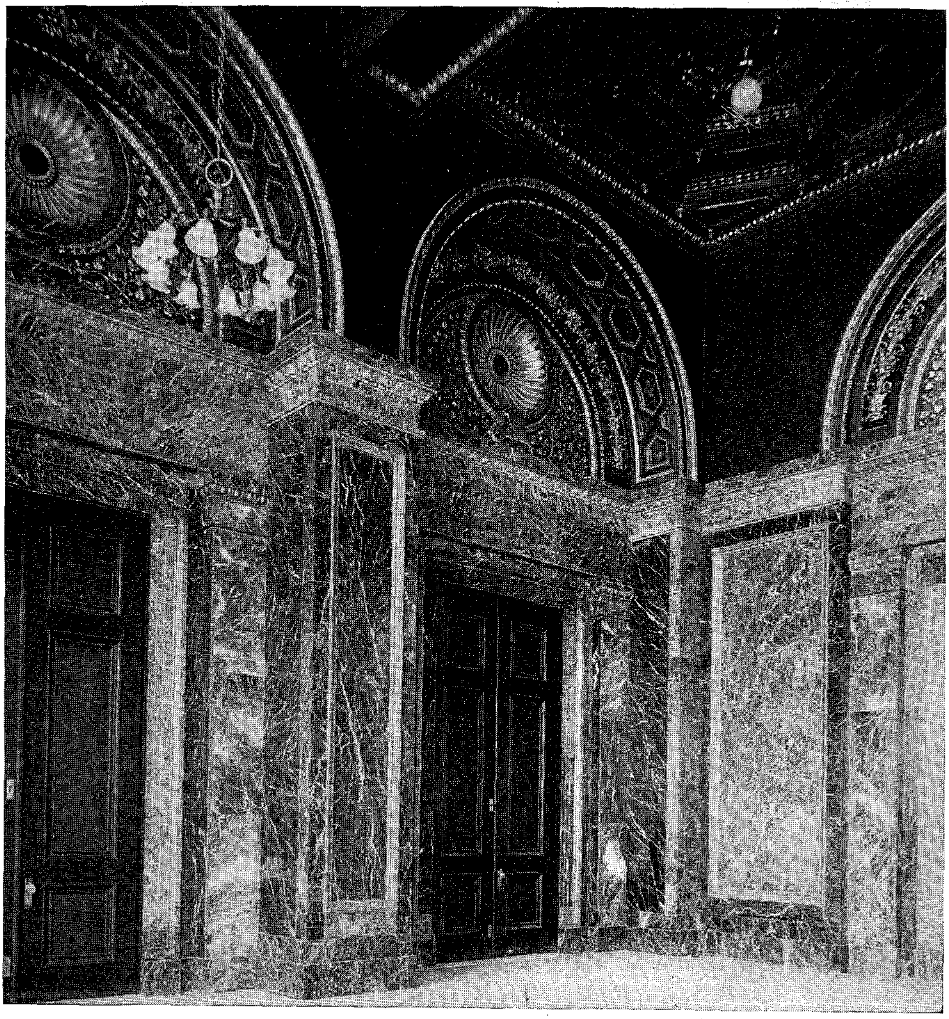
BOOKS		
Home circulation (main library)	584,455	
Home circulation (delivery stations)	631,542	
Reference Department	375,729	
Patent Department	41,793	
Branch reading-rooms	130,998	
Bound newspapers	6,887	
Total circulation of books		1,771,404
PERIODICALS		
Reading-room (main library)	615,387	
Branch reading-rooms	274,699	
Total issue of periodicals		890,086
Grand total		2,661,490

"The entire number of volumes," says Mr. Hild, "in the library May 31, 1897, was 220,736, showing a net increase of 3,533 volumes over the number reported at the close of last year."

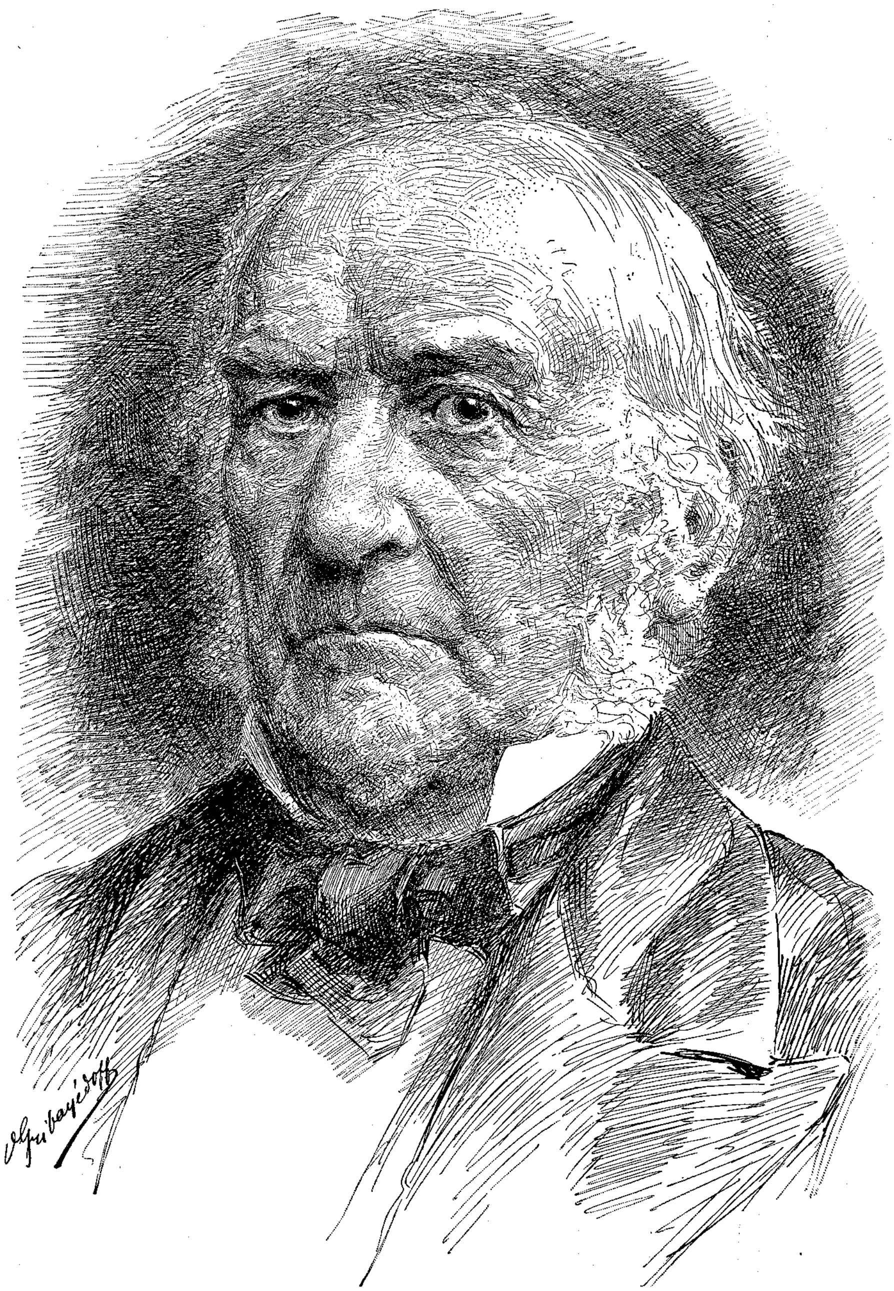
Concerning the statistics of the registration department the last official report says:

"At the close of the library year the number of persons holding two-year cards which entitled them to draw books for home use was 54,208. The total registrations of the year were 28,207, an increase of 2,206 over the previous annual report. There were issued at the various delivery stations 14,259 cards."

In respect to its edifice, its contents, and its character, the Chicago Public Library, now just thrown open for the public use, must be reckoned among the great libraries of the world.



A CORNER IN THE G. A. R. MEMORIAL HALL, CHICAGO PUBLIC LIBRARY



WILLIAM EWART GLADSTONE

From a drawing by Mr. Valerian Gribayédoff, of Paris.

The Story of Gladstone's Life[1]

By Justin McCarthy

Author of "A History of Our Own Times," "The Four Georges," etc.

CHAPTER XXVIII.—THE TWO SPHINXES, IRELAND AND EGYPT

MR. GLADSTONE, however, had trouble enough before him to embarrass the work of any ordinary man. He had no longer Mr. Disraeli to oppose him, but his natural impulses compelled him to take up a course of action which was attended by difficulties insuperable for the time at least. He had now become member for Mid-Lothian in Scotland. Mr. Gladstone, in his new administration, took upon himself the double functions of Prime Minister and Chancellor of the Exchequer. I need not go through the list of the administration, but shall merely mention that Mr. Bright, Mr. Chamberlain, and Sir Charles Dilke accepted office. The Ministry seemed to every observer immensely strong, and the majority at Mr. Gladstone's back was overwhelming. Yet it must be owned that the years of this Government ended for the most part in disappointment and in disaster. Why was this? It was simply because Mr. Gladstone was Mr. Gladstone and could not be anybody else. He could not be Lord Melbourne, for example, whose single appeal was, "Why can't you let things alone?" He could not be Lord Palmerston, who was perfectly content so long as he could humor and propitiate and cajole the majority in the House of Commons. He could not even be Lord John Russell, who, although a man of a zeal and earnestness much more like to his own, could nevertheless express sometimes his willingness to "rest and be thankful" for what had already been gained. Mr. Gladstone was, but only in his own high, unselfish way, like Johnson's Charles of Sweden, who thought nothing gained while aught remained to be done. To become the head of a Government was for him only to be put into a place where he must at once occupy himself in trying, at any trouble and any pain, to improve the condition of his fellow-subjects. So the moment he was settled into office he began to turn his thoughts to new and great measures of reform.

Many events had directed his attention to the condition of Ireland. The state of the Irish tenant farmer appeared to him to call for immediate remedy. I have already spoken of the Land Bill for Ireland which he carried through in 1871. That bill had established a great principle by making it certain that the tenant as well as the landlord owned something in the land which the tenant's own labor had converted from a swamp into a productive farm. The Land Bill of 1871 was, however, only an experiment, and Mr. Gladstone determined to advance upon it and improve it. Against him he had, of course, in such an attempt, the whole strength of the landlord party in Ireland; the whole strength of the Tory landlords in England, who most mistakenly imagined that their interests were bound up with those of Irish landlordism; and the whole strength of the House of Lords. Mr. Gladstone consented, as a temporary measure, to the introduction of a bill which, pending expected legislation, should in the meantime secure to any evicted Irish tenant compensation for any improvements effected on his farm by his own industry and his own skill. The House of Lords threw out the bill. The effect upon Ireland was disastrous. The Irish peasant could not be supposed to study and to understand all the constitutional difficulties that stood in the way of Mr. Gladstone's scheme of reform. What they saw was that the House of Lords, the House of landlords, was able to control Mr. Gladstone, and that there was no hope from English statesmanship.

I do not want to go minutely into the history of that most melancholy time; but something has to be said about it in order to tell aright the story of Mr. Gladstone's political life. The Irish peasant classes were in despair. Agrarian outrage became frequent in Ireland, and Mr. Gladstone's Government believed it necessary to adopt new coercive legislation. The whole thing had got into the old vicious circle again. The legislative refusal of the tenant's right caused agrarian disturbance; agrarian disturbance gave an occasion for coercion; further coercion led only to new disturbance; and so on *da capo.*

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[1] Copyright, 1897, by The Outlook Company.

LORD FREDERICK CAVENDISH
From a photograph by the London Stereoscopic Co.

THE RT. HON. JOSEPH CHAMBERLAIN, M.P.
From a photograph by Messrs. Elliott & Fry, London.

MR. JOHN DILLON, M.P.
From a photograph by Messrs. Russell & Sons, London.

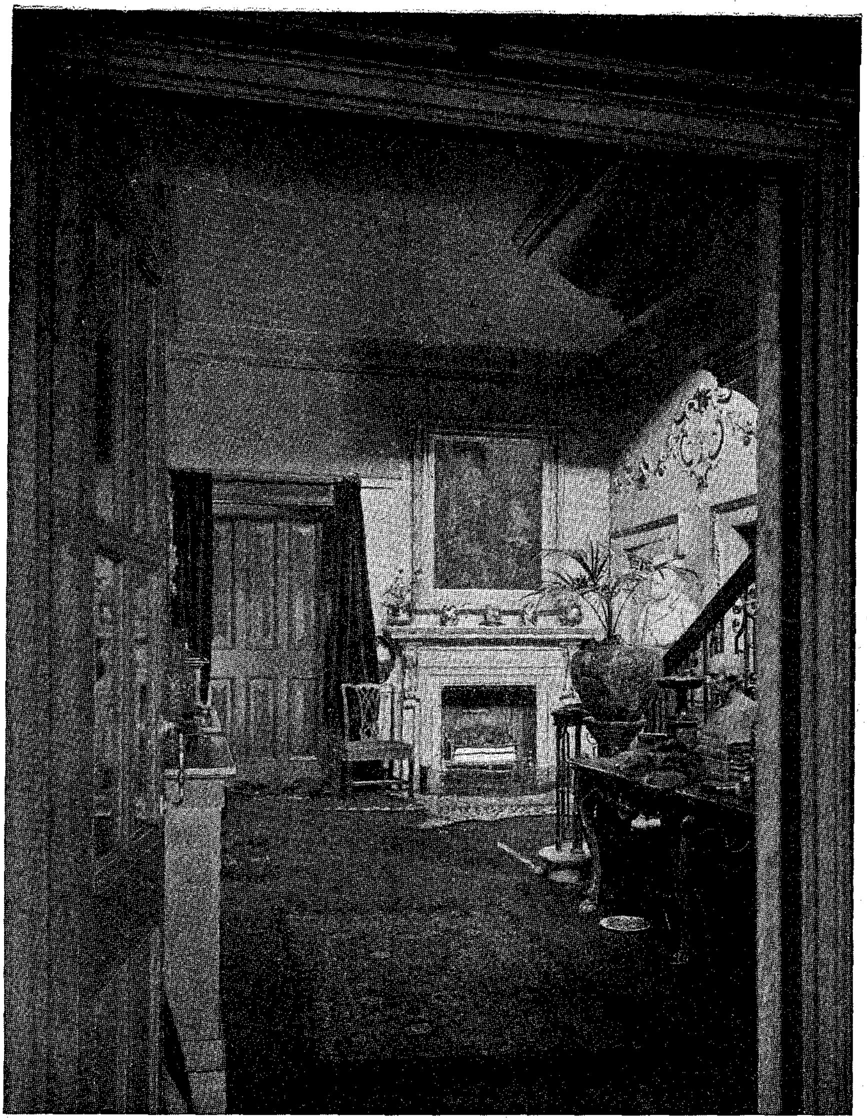
THE RT. HON. SIR CHARLES DILKE, M.P.
From a photograph by Messrs. Elliott & Fry, London.

I remember speaking in the House of Commons some time during the earlier periods of Mr. Gladstone's administration, and declaring my conviction that the action of the House of Lords in rejecting the Compensation for Disturbance Bill was the fountain and origin of all the agrarian trouble then going on in Ireland. I shall never forget how Mr. Gladstone, seated on the Treasury bench, leaning across the table with flashing eyes and earnest gestures, called, "Hear! Hear! Hear!" to my declaration. Mr. Gladstone was between two terrible difficulties at the time—the difficulty with the House of Lords and the difficulty with the Irish people. The Compensation for Disturbance Bill was purely a temporary measure. It merely required that the evicting landlord should stay his hand until a complete measure of land reform had been introduced, or should compensate the evicted tenant for the improvements which that tenant himself had made in the landlord's property. It may be asked, Why did not the Irish peasantry wait in patience until the full measure of land reform had been prepared and introduced? The Irish peasantry are a very intelligent peasantry. They saw that the House of Lords had strength enough to reject Mr. Gladstone's small and temporary measure, and they asked, What chance was there for the passing of his scheme of permanent land reform? Over and over again has a tenant farmer said to me: "We don't blame Mr. Gladstone, but we know only too well that the House of Lords will never let him do anything for the good of Ireland." So there grew up in the minds and hearts of the Irish people a feeling of utter disbelief that anything good could ever come for them out of even the best-intentioned English statesmanship. Agrarian outrages are under such conditions the natural, the inevitable result of popular despair.

In the meantime a new state of things had arisen in Irish politics. The Home Rule movement had taken a fresh, an energetic, and even an aggressive form. It was now led by a man of genius, the greatest Irish leader who had ever been known since the time of Daniel O'Connell. Mr. Parnell was then a very young man, but he had made himself thoroughly master of the situation both in England and in Ireland. He had an absolute and unlimited belief in the power of constitutional agitation in a constitutional country. At no time, from first to last, did he give the slightest countenance to any acts of violence. But he had made up his mind to use the House of Commons as the platform of Irish agitation, and to unite Home Rule and Land Reform as inseparable elements in the new campaign. His policy was to insist on a full hearing for these great Irish questions in the House of Commons, and, furthermore—and herein lay the great secret of his success—to insist that if the House of Commons would not listen to the story of Irish grievances, it should do no business at all. This was the whole purpose of obstruction as Mr. Parnell meant it and planned it. He was confident that if we but got a fair hearing we should make good the justice of our national claims, and his policy was to say to the House of Commons, "If you will not listen to us, then neither shall you listen to any one else." The vigorous assertion of such a policy put, of course, a great difficulty in Mr. Parnell's way, and at this time Mr. Gladstone was only beginning to study the whole question of Home Rule for Ireland. But I know that even then Mr. Gladstone felt a certain sympathy with Mr. Parnell's motives, and a considerable admiration for his courage and his capacity. The two forces, however,

CHARLES STEWART PARNELL

The late Irish leader. From a photograph by Mr. William Lawrence, of Dublin.



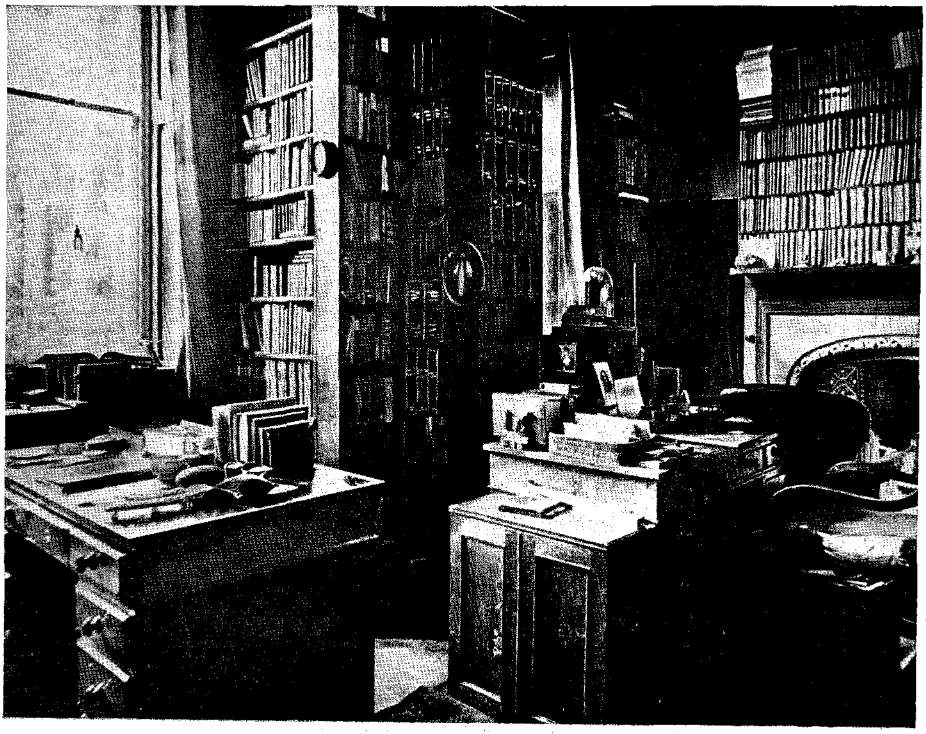
HAWARDEN CASTLE. A VIEW IN THE HALL

This and following illustrations are from photographs taken expressly for The Outlook by Mr. Watmough Webster, of Chester.

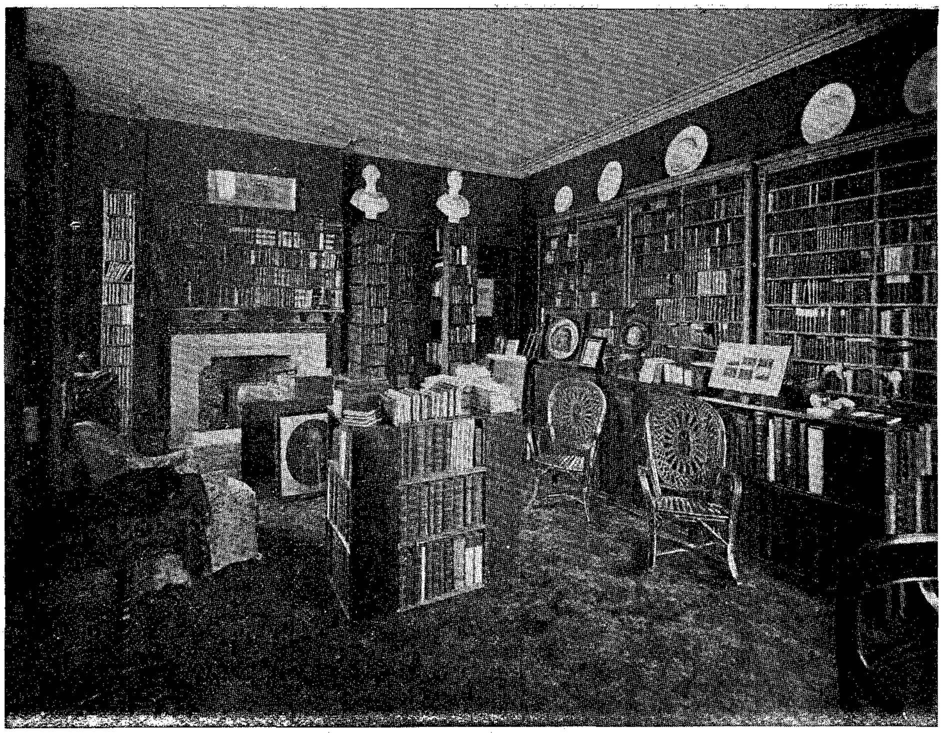
were certain to come into collision, sooner or later. The Irish people began to be for the time disappointed with Mr. Gladstone. They had regarded him as the one statesman who was destined to do justice to their cause. They found only new coercion bills and the supremacy of the House of Lords. Mr. Gladstone, on the other hand, was, I suppose, somewhat disappointed with the representatives of the Irish people. Perhaps he thought that they might have trusted him more and waited with less impatience for favorable opportunities. They, on their part, found their country drifting into total disorganization, and saw no way of putting heart into the people, and of preventing the spread of further outrage, than by letting Ireland see that she had a band of men who could stand up for her claims in the House of Commons, and who could, on her behalf, resist, in constitutional fashion the authority and the power of any English Government.

Thus, after a while, things went from bad to worse, and Mr. Gladstone was persuaded by some of his official colleagues into allowing the introduction and passing of a measure empowering the authorities in Dublin Castle to arrest and imprison for an indefinite time any one they pleased, and whom they believed to be "reasonably suspected" of dangerous purposes. No charge was necessary, no trial or conviction was necessary; the man was "reasonably suspected" of an intention to do something or other making for disturbance, and he was forthwith locked up in prison. Mr. Parnell himself, Mr. Dillon, Mr. Sexton, and nearly all the leaders of the Irish National movement, were put into prison cells. In every town and village all over Ireland the principal promoters of the National movement were locked up in jail. Mr. Gladstone's heart had never been in this business. He had only accepted such a policy because his advisers in the Irish Government told him that unless armed with such exceptional powers they could not undertake to be responsible for the maintenance of order in Ireland. Mr. Gladstone, therefore, consented reluctantly to let this new development of coercion go on for the present. Probably he could have done nothing else; a man not on the spot and not personally acquainted with the conditions of Ireland could hardly have refused to act on the advice of the Irish Government. But I am not speaking lightly or without knowledge when I say that Mr. Gladstone himself never had much faith in the efficacy of such a coercion measure as that which was now administered in Ireland. We all remember Burke's famous saying, that he did not know how to draw up an indictment against a whole nation. More difficult, assuredly, it must be to put a whole nation into jail. The authorities in Dublin Castle did not put into jail just the very set of men whom it would have been for the welfare of the country to incarcerate. They put into prison men like Mr. Parnell, Mr. Dillon, Mr. Sexton, and all manner of other men whose private characters and whose public conduct alike showed them to be incapable of any sympathy with crime or outrage of any kind; and they left out of prison the murderous gang who were even then planning the assassination of certain officials in Dublin Castle.

In the meantime Mr. Gladstone thought it right to release Mr. Parnell and most of his friends from prison. This resolve led to the resignation of the late Mr. Forster, who was then Chief Secretary to the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, and who was the principal author of the new coercion scheme. Mr. Forster had gone over to Ireland animated with the purest and sincerest feelings of kindness towards the Irish people. He had, indeed, proved that kindness many years

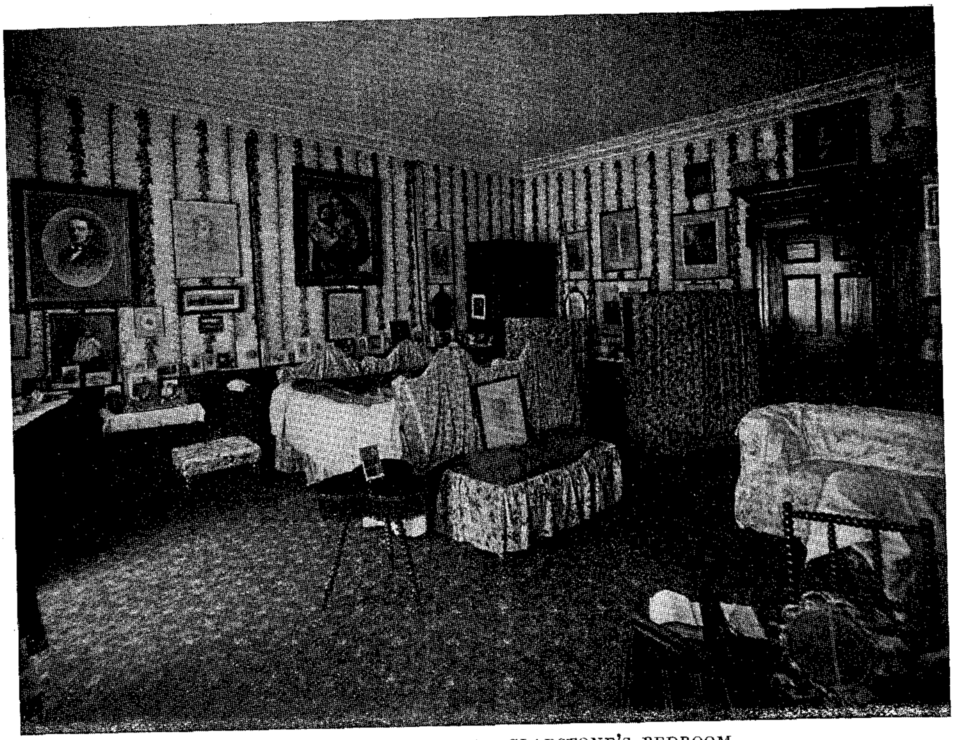


HAWARDEN CASTLE. A CORNER IN THE STUDY

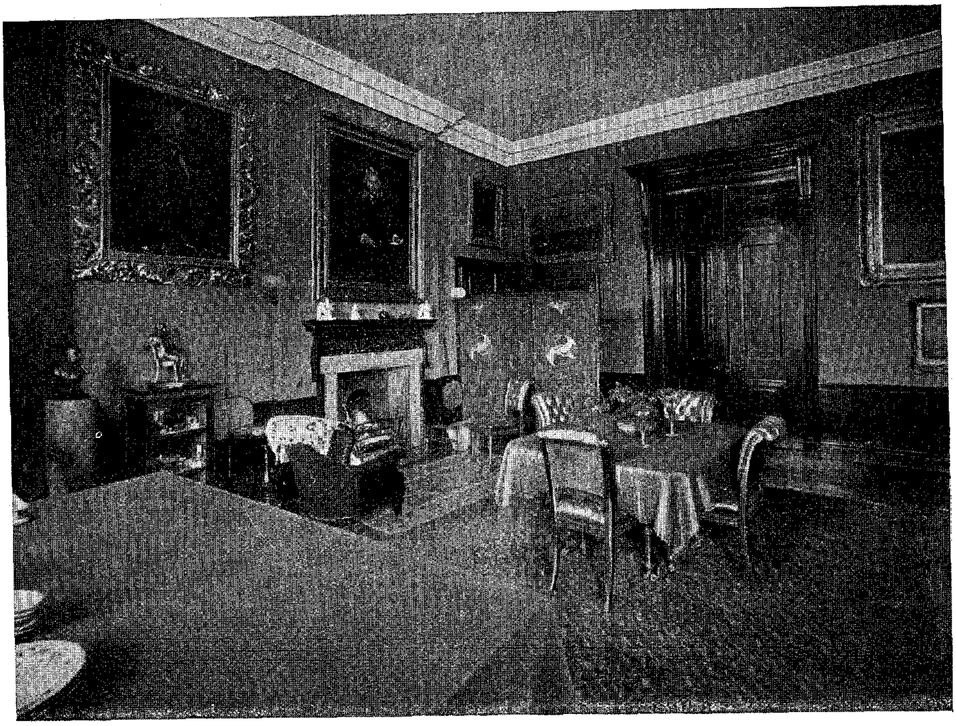


HAWARDEN CASTLE. THE LIBRARY

HAWARDEN CASTLE. THE DRAWING-ROOM



HAWARDEN CASTLE. MR. GLADSTONE'S BEDROOM



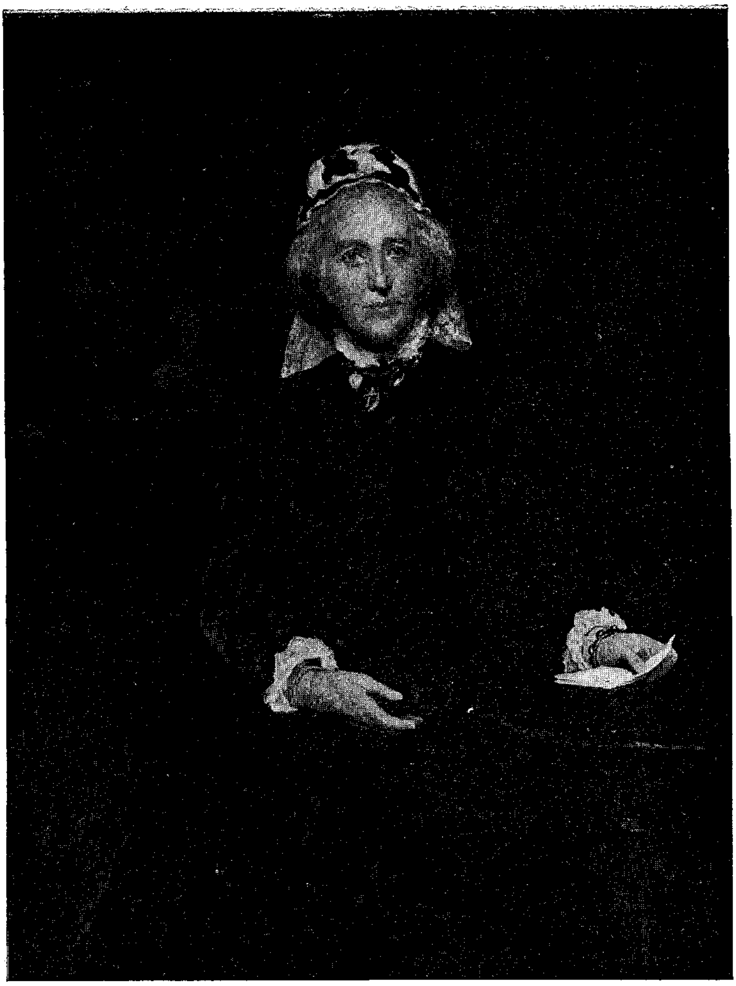
HAWARDEN CASTLE. THE DINING-ROOM

before by his personal exertions in Ireland to relieve distress at the time of the great Irish famine. But he was a man of a strong will and at the same time of a sensitive nature. He appears to have got it into his mind that, as Ireland had reason to know him for her friend, she ought to have been content to receive any measures from his hand because of his good intentions. Populations, however, do not do things in that way, and the Irish people declined to keep quiet under the imprisonment of their leaders and of nearly all the representative Nationalists in the country. Then Mr. Forster became angry with the Irish people, and the Irish people became angry with Mr. Forster; and when Mr. Gladstone insisted on releasing Mr. Parnell Mr. Forster threw up his office. Then it soon became apparent that he had imprisoned the wrong men, at all events that he had certainly not imprisoned the right men. The assassin gang, of whom I have spoken, and who several times tried without success to murder Mr. Forster himself, succeeded in murdering the Chief Secretary, Lord Frederick Cavendish, and Mr. Thomas Burke, a Dublin Castle official, in the Phœnix Park. No crime more shocking has startled the public conscience of our day. A wild outcry was raised in England by many people against Mr. Parnell and his followers, who were openly accused of having had something to do with the instigation of the murders. Mr. Gladstone never gave way in the least before this outcry or changed the course of his pacific policy. Mr. Parnell wrote to him a frank and friendly letter offering, if Mr. Gladstone wished it, to retire from Parliament and public life altogether in order that Mr. Gladstone's policy should not be endangered in England by association with so unpopular a name. Of course Mr. Gladstone declined to accept such a sacrifice, and strongly advised Mr. Parnell to stick to his post, and this Parnell did.

The men who plotted the Phœnix Park murders had for one of their motives the desire to bring discredit upon every constitutional movement. One effect of the crime was just the opposite of that which they intended. I date the beginning of a really friendly understanding between Mr. Gladstone and the Irish National party, between the Irish National party and the English democracy, from the time when it became apparent that the leaders of popular opinion in Ireland regarded the criminal and the murderer as the worst enemies of the National cause. It is but justice to say that the English people generally displayed thorough good sense and manliness throughout the whole crisis. Not one in every ten believed for a moment that Mr. Parnell and the Irish National party had any manner of sympathy with crime. Even among those, the minority, who did proclaim such belief, there came a sort of reaction. Something, however, had to be done to prevent the possibility of further crimes like those of the Phœnix Park. A new coercion measure, rigorous indeed, and bitterly resented by the Irish representatives, but still directed against a movement of crime and not meant for the incarceration of everybody without trial or even without charge, was pushed through both Houses of Parliament.

The Liberal Government, in the meantime, got into trouble about their occupation of Egypt. There was an uprising in Egypt against the Khedive under the leadership of Arabi Pasha; and the English Government took the side of the Khedive, and the English fleet bombarded Alexandria. Mr. Bright resigned office rather than have anything to do with a war policy in Egypt. Mr. George Russell says with truth that the great majority of Liberals accepted with reluctance, but without resistance, a line of action which wore "an unpleasant and close resemblance to the antics of Lord Beaconsfield." Indeed, the main weakness of Mr. Gladstone's position was in the fact that he had accepted a responsibility in Egypt which he would never have created for himself. He had to accept it; he could not help himself. A great statesman to whom the country looks for the carrying of many reforms is not free to refuse to take office and to endeavor to realize those reforms merely because he has at the same time to inherit some responsibility for a policy which he did not himself initiate. But the trouble came all the heavier upon Mr. Gladstone, inasmuch as he could have had no heart for the task which was imposed upon him by the Egyptian policy of his predecessors.

The trial, too, came hard upon Mr. Gladstone's most devoted followers. Nothing, says Mr. Russell, but absolute confidence in Mr. Gladstone's political rectitude and tried love of peace could have secured even this qualified and negative sanction from his party. The heroic career and striking personality of General Gordon had fascinated

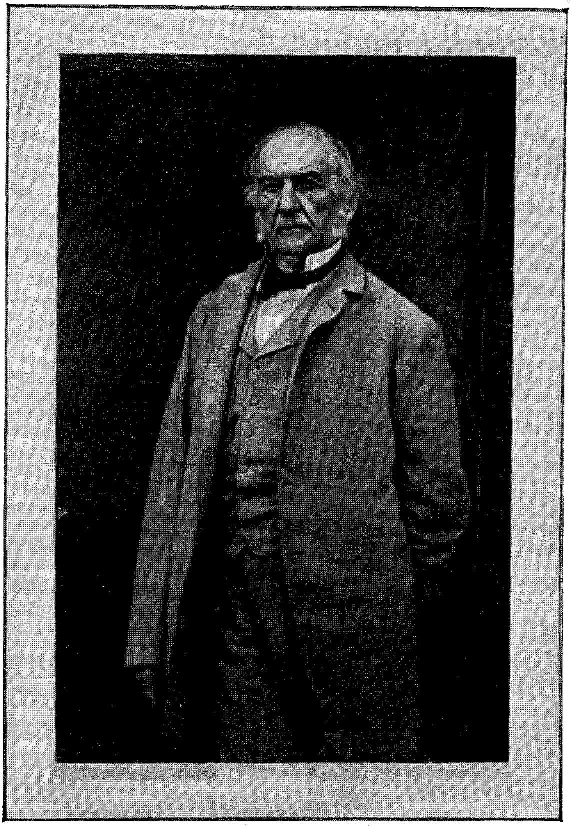


MRS. GLADSTONE

Photographed expressly for The Outlook by Mr. Watmough Webster, of Chester, from the painting by Professor Hubert Herkomer, R.A.

the public imagination, and the circumstances of his untimely death awoke an outburst of indignation against those who were or seemed to be responsible for it. In truth, the Government in England is held responsible for everything that happens during its time of office. Disraeli laid it down as a law that no administration could possibly survive three bad harvests. The Coercion Acts told against Mr. Gladstone's Government in Ireland, the crimes in the Phœnix Park told against it in England, the Egyptian policy and the bombardment of Alexandria weakened Gladstone's influence with English Liberals, and the death of General Gordon roused against him the anger of the person who is commonly described, and not ineffectively described, as "the man in the streets." The man in the streets, of course, held Mr. Gladstone responsible for Gordon's death, Mr. Gladstone being just about as much responsible for it as the man in the streets himself. Why did he not rescue Gordon? demanded the man in the streets. Why did not the rescuing expedition reach Khartoum in time? The question of distance and difficulty never troubled the judgment of the man in the streets. His idea probably was that it was about as easy to send an expedition to Khartoum as to send troops to Chatham. The man in the streets, however, had, as he always has, a good deal to do with the direction of public opinion. Decidedly the events in Egypt told heavily against the popularity of Mr. Gladstone's administration. So keen, and I may say so cruel, were Gladstone's political enemies that it was made a charge against him that he was seen in a London theater applauding with evident delight a popular comedy on the very evening when he must have known of Gordon's death. The fact was that when Mr. Gladstone visited the theater no account whatever of Gordon's wholly unexpected death had reached London. The story is only worth telling because it illustrates the kind of ignoble and credulous rancor which political animosity can still stir up in the minds of otherwise intelligent and honorable Englishmen.

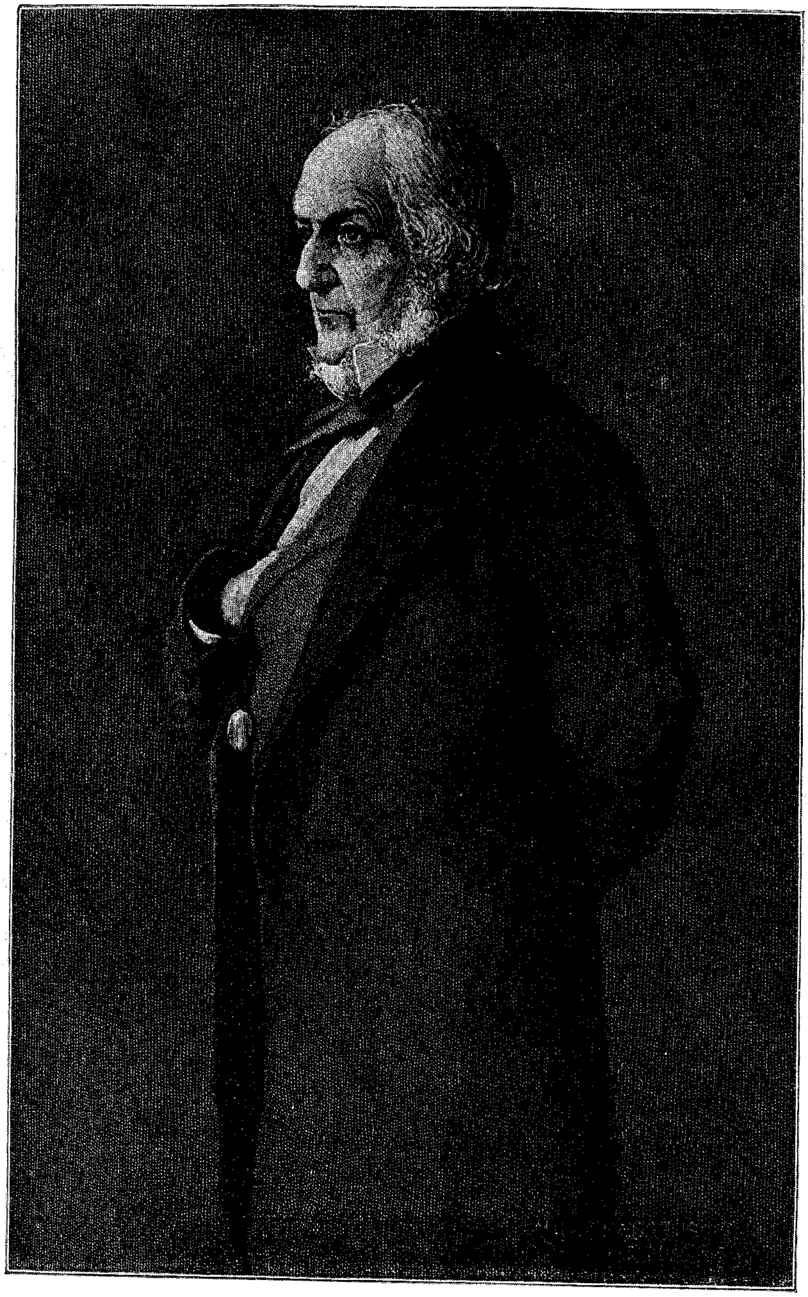
CHAPTER XXIX.—WAR WITH THE BOERS. THE FRANCHISE BILL. A NEW ELECTION



WILLIAM EWART GLADSTONE

From a photograph taken by Mr. John Moffat in 1884.

The Egyptian difficulty was not the only foreign trouble which Mr. Gladstone inherited from his predecessors. The war with the Boers broke out. The English Government seems to have been deceived into the belief that the Transvaal Republic had become anxious to be taken under the direct protection of England. Sir Theophilus Shepstone, says the author of "England under Gladstone, 1880–1885," was sent out to investigate the situation. He seems to have entirely misunderstood the condition of things, and to have taken the frightened desires of a few Boers as the honest sentiment of the whole Boer nation. In an evil hour he hoisted the English flag in the Transvaal, and declared the little Republic a portion of the territory of the British crown. As a matter of fact, the majority of the Boers were a fierce, independent people, very jealous of their liberty, and without the least desire to come under the rule to escape which they had wandered so far from the earliest settlements of their race. Mr. Gladstone again and again denounced the Conservative policy which had brought about the temporary annexation of the Transvaal. The people of the Transvaal soon proved that they were not anxious to be under the government of England. They rose in revolt, if it ought to be properly called revolt, and they defeated the English troops more than once. Mr. Gladstone had in the meantime succeeded to power. Many Englishmen, and even some of those who generally supported Mr. Gladstone, were strongly of opinion that we ought not to come to terms with the Boers until we had inflicted on them some crushing defeat. Mr. Gladstone was not of that opinion. He thought we were wrong in annexing the Transvaal Republic, and he could not believe, as a statesman and a Christian, that we ought not to make peace with the Boers and give them back their Republic without first massacring enough of them to satisfy our heroic sense of honor. Nobody doubts that England could have conquered the Boers, could have sent out troops enough to extirpate the whole male population of the Transvaal Republic. Mr. Gladstone did not see honor or credit or glory or Christianity in any such performance. He sent out one of the bravest soldiers and one of the most successful generals in the English service, Sir Evelyn Wood, with the express purpose of coming to honorable terms of peace with the Boers. Peace was established on fair and honorable conditions. The Transvaal Republic was

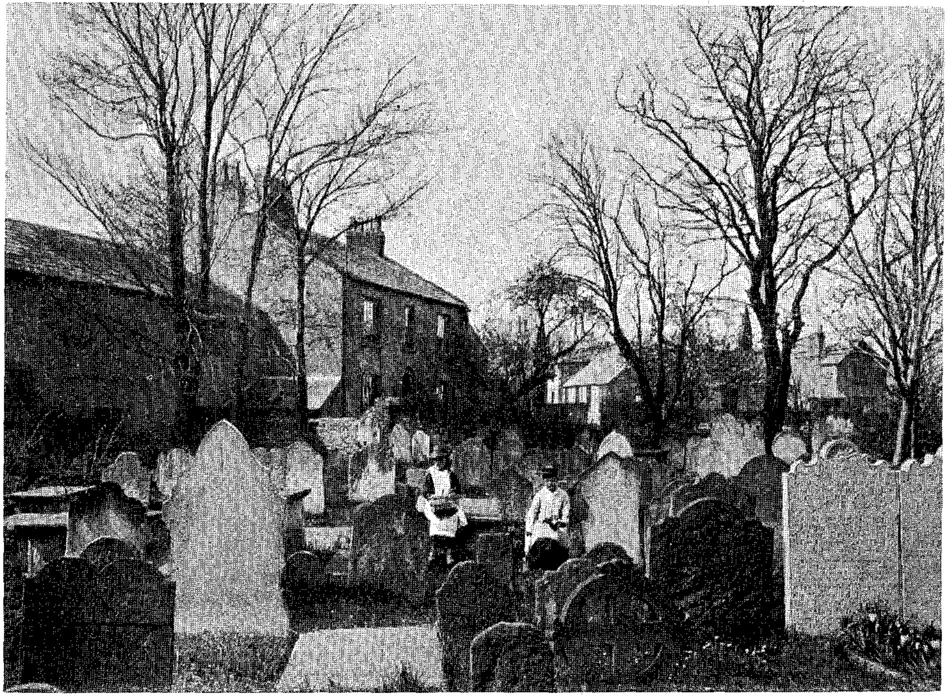


WILLIAM EWART GLADSTONE

From the painting by Mr. H. J. Thaddeus, of London. Engraved by Mr. J. M. Johnstone.

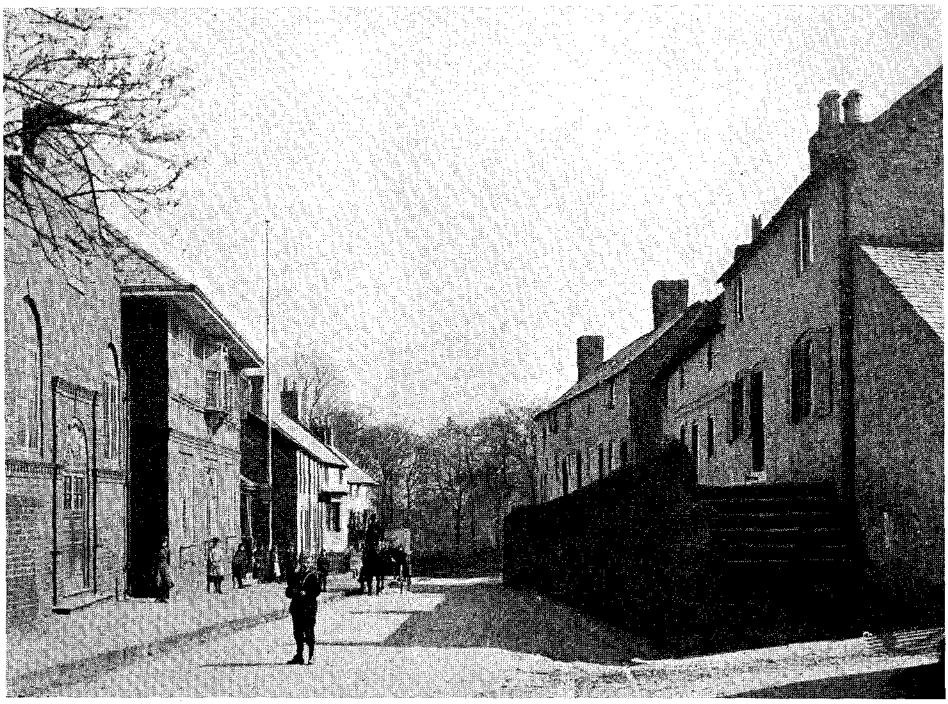
restored, with a British Protectorate against foreign nations and foreign invasion, and with a British High Commissioner, but with the entire local and national self-government for which the Boers, to do them justice, had fought so well. Mr. Gladstone, of course, was denounced by all the Jingoes of England. They raged against him because he had allowed the curtain of this drama to fall upon what they called the triumph of the Boers. Mr. Gladstone went on his course unheeding. He had asked of his own mind and heart and conscience what was the right thing to do, and he had done it. It was a brave act. But it was an act only in keeping with the whole of Mr. Gladstone's career.

The one great domestic work of the administration this time was the passing of the Franchise Bill, which was a just and necessary sequel to the successive extensions of the voting power among the people. This measure was worked to a certain extent in conjunction with the Tory party. It became a measure of redistribution as well as of extended suffrage. In other words, the whole scheme of the constituencies was recast. Many small boroughs, miserably small boroughs, ceased to have separate representation in Parliament, and became merged into the population of the counties. Large counties were distributed into several divisions. The measure was carried in the manner to which I have already alluded by the co-operation of both parties—a mode of procedure which might well be commended in almost every case where the two parties are agreed as to the general necessity of a measure. Mr. Gladstone, Lord Hartington, and Sir Charles Dilke went into a kind of joint committee with Lord Salisbury and the late Sir Stafford Northcote, and the details of the scheme were easily arranged. The work of the House of Commons was never more trying than during this particular Parliament. Mr. Lucy, in his clever sketch of Mr. Gladstone, from which I have already quoted more than once, says that "for comparatively young men on the Treasury Bench the physical ordeal was trying. Mr. Gladstone, with his threescore years and ten upon his back, bore more than his full burden of the day's work. He was in his place early and late, his so-called dinner-hour sometimes not exceeding thirty minutes. It was no uncommon thing to find him at his post between two and three in the morning after a turbulent night." Then Mr. Lucy



HAWARDEN VILLAGE. SAINT DEINIOL'S HOSTEL
In the distance Saint Deiniol's Library as seen from the churchyard.

tells us that towards the close of the session of 1880 Mr. Gladstone broke down. "The illness, which took the form of fever, with congestion of the lungs, was serious enough to alarm the nation profoundly. Downing Street was crowded with anxious callers." Mr. Gladstone, however, triumphed over all physical troubles. His friend Sir Donald Currie took him for a trip round the coasts in the steamer Grantully Castle. Sea and meadow and forest and open air were always Mr. Gladstone's best medicine, and he soon came back, prepared to carry on the work of the session with renewed energy. But it began to be gradually more and more evident that the administration had spent its force. Defeat came suddenly and almost unexpectedly, on a clause in the Government's annual financial scheme. The House immediately adjourned, and next day Mr. Gladstone announced, not in so many words, but in the peculiar phraseology adopted in English Parliamentary life, that the Government had resigned office. The words he actually used were: "That, in consequence of a decision arrived at by the House, the Government had thought fit to submit a dutiful communication to her Majesty." Of course everybody perfectly well understood the meaning of that. The Liberals were out of office once more. They had fallen victims partly to the inherited policy of their predecessors, and partly to their conscientious desire to do justice to the people of Ireland while yet unable to see their way to any course which could really satisfy the people of Ireland. They went so far in one direction as to infuriate all the Tories, and to discourage and alienate many feeble Liberals. But they did not go far enough in that direction to satisfy Ireland.



HAWARDEN VILLAGE. THE MAIN STREET

On the left the Workingmen's Institute is seen.

Lord Salisbury was invited to form an administration, and, after some hesitation, caused by the difficulties of the time, he had to consent to do so. Lord Randolph Churchill joined the new Ministry as Secretary of State for India. The administration did not last long. On the 18th of November Parliament was dissolved, and the question then which everybody asked everybody else was, What is to be the result of the general elections? The vote at these elections was to be taken under the conditions of the new Reform Bill which Mr. Gladstone had so lately introduced. The result of the elections was to give the Tories only a nominal majority, and even that majority depended altogether on the support of the Irish members. Lord Salisbury had to go out of office after a very short and uncomfortable interval, and Mr. Gladstone returned to power once more. In the meantime the question of Home Rule came up again. An anonymous paragraph appeared in the newspapers announcing, on no particular authority, that Mr. Gladstone had come back to office determined to deal liberally with the question of Home Rule. The paragraph created consternation among the Tories, and even among many of Mr. Gladstone's own followers. It was met with a prompt denial by some of Mr. Gladstone's own colleagues in office. Mr. Gladstone himself preserved for a while an ominous silence.

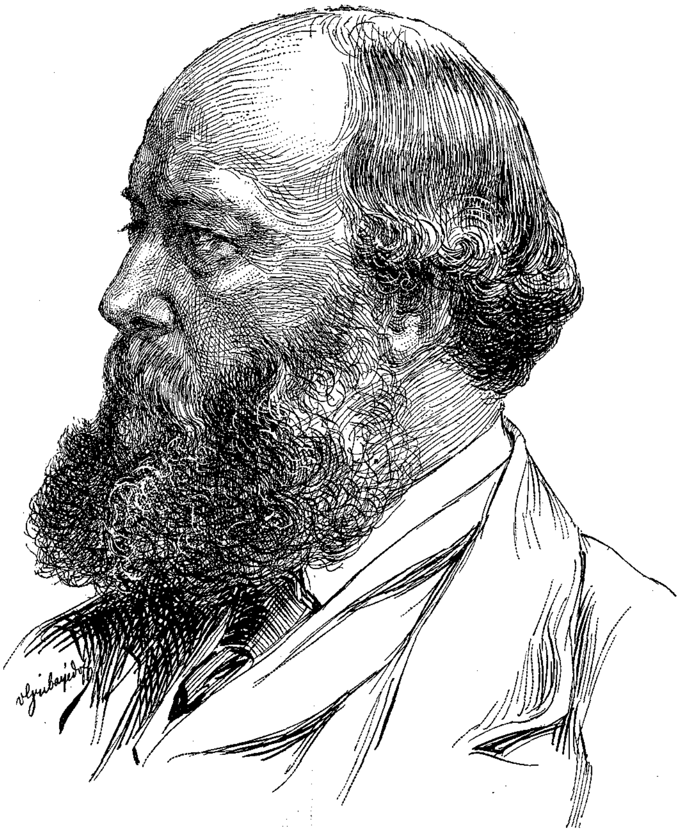
CHAPTER XXX.—HOME RULE

Mr. Gladstone's political opponents have made much talk about the suddenness of his conversion to Home Rule. The imputation is that he became a convert to the principle of Home Rule at the moment when he found that Irish Nationalist members were returned to Parliament in numbers strong enough to hold the balance of power between the two great English parties—the Liberals and the Tories. I think I shall be able to show that the conversion was by no means rapid; that it was, on the contrary, of slow growth, and that it was not occasioned by the mere fact that the Irish Nationalist members were strong enough to make themselves of account to the Government of either party. So long ago as 1879, shortly after I first became a member of the House of Commons, Mr. Gladstone showed himself inclined, not, indeed, to favor, but to consider, the question of Home Rule. Through a friend of his and of mine, Mr. James Knowles, the editor of the "Nineteenth Century," Mr. Gladstone suggested that I should write one or two articles for the "Nineteenth Century" on the subject of Home Rule. As I understood the matter at the time, Mr. Gladstone did not give the slightest indication that he was in favor of the principle of Home Rule, but was of opinion that the hour had come when a fair statement on the whole subject ought to be brought under the notice of the English public. I have no doubt that Mr. Gladstone suggested my name as the writer of the articles for the reason that I was well known to that English public as a writer of books, and that, while I was, and always had been, a strong Nationalist in Irish politics, I should not be regarded by any one as a man madly anxious to injure the British Empire. There were two points, as I then understood, on which Mr. Gladstone desired that information should be given to himself and the public of England. One was the question whether a scheme of Home Rule could be shaped which could give Ireland the management of her domestic affairs without disturbing the balance of Imperial control. The other question was whether the great majority of the Irish people were really anxious for the restoration of a National Parliament.

MR. HENRY W. LUCY

From a photograph by Messrs. Elliott & Fry, London. For twenty years Mr. Lucy was the reporter of Mr. Gladstone's speeches. He is the author of an excellent Life of that statesman.

It has to be remembered that at this time the Irish Nationalist members, properly so called, were but a small minority of the Irish representation in the House of Commons. Those were still the days of the high franchise in Ireland as well as in England, only that the franchise was relatively much higher in Ireland than it was in England. Therefore the majority of the Irish representatives were of the landlord class or of the moneyed class. I wrote the articles as suggested, and I do not suppose they wrought any particular effect on the British public. The only possible interest they can have now for my readers, or for myself, lies in the fact that they show Mr.



ROBERT ARTHUR TALBOT GASCOYNE CECIL, MARQUIS OF SALISBURY

From a drawing by Mr. Valerian Gribayédoff, of Paris. Lord Salisbury is the present head of the Conservative party. After occupying many official positions of trust, he became Prime Minister in 1885, but held office less than a year. In 1886 he was again Premier, and remained so until 1892. He is now Premier for the third time, the Conservatives having come into power again in June, 1895.

Gladstone's willingness at that time to consider fairly the question of Home Rule, and to have that question brought under the notice of the English people. Years went on, and meantime Mr. Gladstone and the Irish Nationalist members had drifted much apart. The English Liberal Government was trying once again to keep Ireland quiet by means of coercion acts. An English Liberal Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland had declared publicly, in the House of Lords, that something was gained, at all events, by driving discontent beneath the surface—a statement about as wild as that of one who should say that something was gained by stopping the smell of pestilential drains. Somewhere about that time I happened to meet Mr. Gladstone, as we were passing through one of the division lobbies of the House of Commons to give our votes. He touched me on the arm, and drew me into conversation with him. He said to me, in somewhat emphatic tone, that he could not understand why a mere handful of Irish members, such as my immediate colleagues were, should call themselves *par excellence* the Irish Nationalist party, while a much larger number of Irish representatives, elected just as we were, kept always assuring him that the Irish people had no manner of sympathy with us or with our Home Rule scheme. "How am I to know?" he asked me. "These men far outnumber you and your friends, and they are just as fairly elected as you are." I said to him, "Mr. Gladstone, give us a popular franchise in Ireland, and we will soon let you know whether we represent the Irish people or whether we do not." He said, "You know very well that I have always been anxious to give a popular suffrage to Ireland as well as to England." I said to him, "Yes, I know all that; I thoroughly appreciate your purpose; but when you can give us that popular suffrage you will soon know what are the opinions of the Irish people." Time went on, and Mr. Gladstone carried in 1884 his measure, which I have just described, reforming the suffrage and redistributing the seats in Great Britain and in Ireland. The effect of this change was to make the franchise in both countries something approaching very nearly indeed to manhood suffrage. In Ireland the immediate result was the total disappearance of every representative opposed to Home Rule, except for a few Tories in Ulster and elsewhere, and the representatives of Dublin University, who are elected by a purely collegiate vote. The whole representation of Ireland was one hundred and three members, and out of that the Home Rule party returned eighty-three.

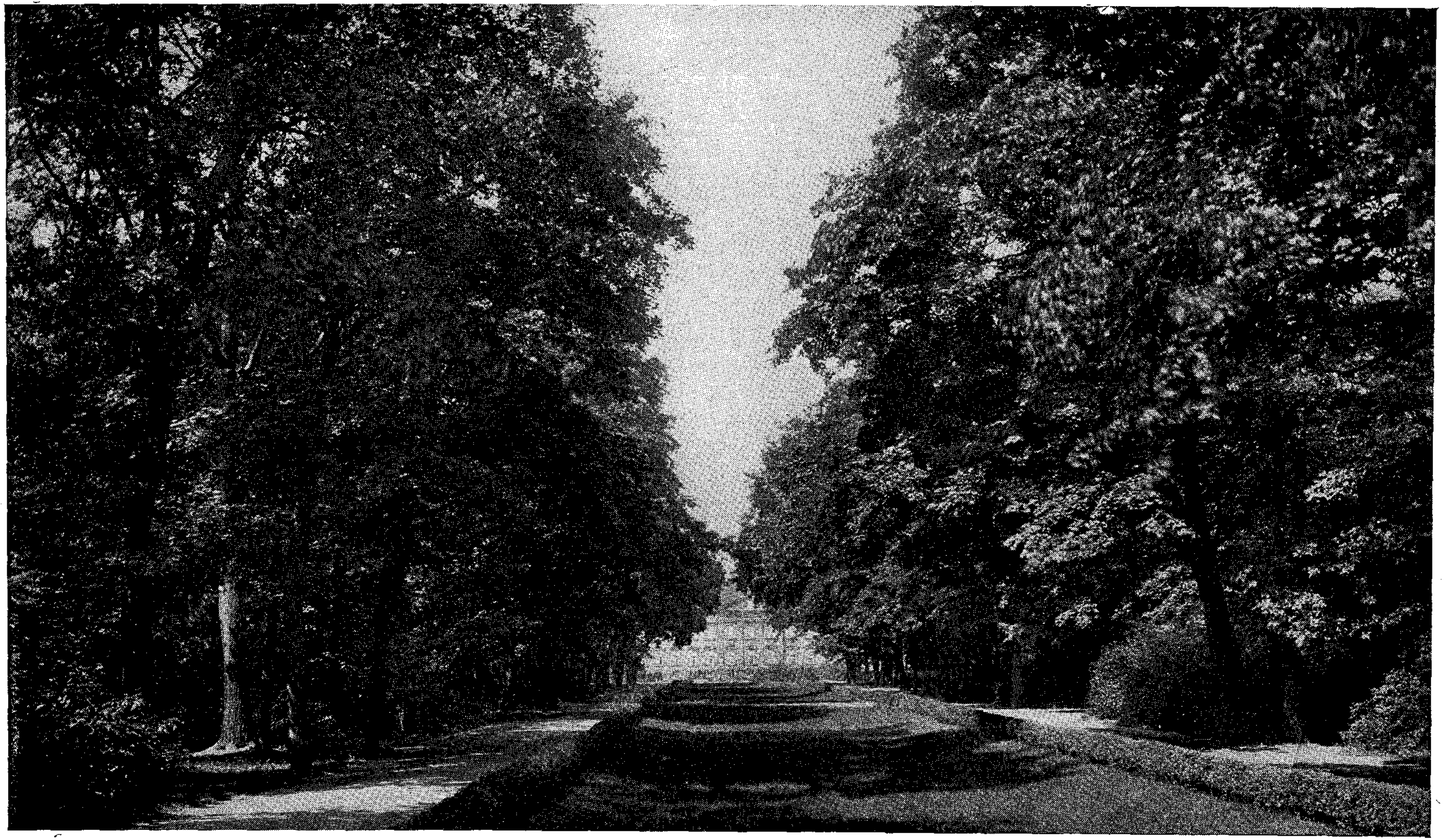
I had some opportunity of talking to Mr. Gladstone after the general election which made this change, and he told me frankly that his question was answered so far as the national desire of Ireland was concerned. Of course, he did not tell me whether or how far his mind was working round in the direction of Home Rule. I did not ask him. I had no need to ask him. I knew that the subject had been under his consideration for several years. I felt assured that he had been thinking it carefully over, and that the result of the general elections had convinced him of one fact, at all events, about which he had been doubtful before. I knew that deep in his mind for many years had lain a conviction that there is such a thing as nationality, and that a State made up of a cluster of nationalities can only exist in strength by consulting the wishes of each of these as to its domestic affairs. It therefore did not come on me as the slightest surprise when, in 1885, it began to be publicly said that Mr. Gladstone was a convert to the cause of Home Rule. His political opponents, and, indeed, some of his political supporters at that time, went about expressing in open-mouthed wonder their opinions as to the suddenness of his conversion. To me there was nothing sudden about it. Even in my own limited and casual experience I had known that the conviction was slowly growing up in the mind of the great statesman. I am not now discussing the merits of Home Rule. That question will settle itself sooner or later. What I am anxious to do is to impress upon my readers that there is absolutely no truth in the story that Mr. Gladstone, having always been a convinced opponent of Home Rule, came round to the principle all in a flash the moment the Irish Nationalist members became strong enough to hold the balance between rival English parties. I think even the facts that I have mentioned ought to be enough to settle that question for any impartial mind. In his action towards Home Rule Mr. Gladstone was perfectly consistent in the true sense of the word. He had learnt something to-day which he did not know yesterday, and he felt bound to act upon the knowledge. Unless it is inconsistent for a statesman to admit the value of new information, it was not inconsistent on Mr. Gladstone's part to admit that, when opportunity was given, the Irish people had proved themselves in favor of Home Rule, and to take account of the information and act upon it. So far back as 1874 Mr. Gladstone had publicly said in the House of Commons that if it could be proved that there was on the part of Great Britain and of Ireland any desire to form a scheme which should give Ireland a Parliament of her own and relieve the Imperial Parliament from the necessity of looking after Irish domestic affairs, he did not think much of the statesmanship which could not shape a plan to suit such a purpose. He said that he did not himself see his way on the spur of the moment to form such a plan, but he could not believe that the intellect of Parliament could fail to devise it. As he explained then, his difficulty was not so much about the forming of the plan as about what I may call the previous question—the question whether Ireland really desired a national Parliament, and whether Great Britain would be willing to yield to such a desire. Later still Mr. Gladstone made another admission which showed even more clearly that if Ireland were strong and united in her claim for the management of her own domestic affairs, such a wish ought to be taken into account by the Imperial Parliament. I remember well that at the time this admission was seized upon by several London papers as an evidence that Mr. Gladstone was coming over to the cause of Home Rule. In point of fact, he had done nothing more in either case than to admit that under certain conditions, which conditions he did not believe to exist, it might be necessary for statesmanship to open a new chapter in the relations between Great Britain and Ireland. I am fully convinced that at that time Mr. Gladstone did not believe that Home Rule was really called for by the people of Ireland, and was of opinion that the agitation for it was purely factitious and would be transitory. When it became known that his mind was made up in favor of Home Rule, the amazement of some of his own followers knew no bounds. Then, and for long after, the great complaint made against him by some of his colleagues in office and in opposition was that he had not consulted them. That was a grievance urged in especial by Mr. Chamberlain—one which appears to have rankled in his mind.

I believe the first colleague consulted was Mr. John Morley, who immediately afterwards was put by Mr. Gladstone into the office of Chief Secretary to the Lord-Lieutenant—that is to say, of Chief Secretary for Ireland—and to whom, therefore, Mr. Gladstone would naturally turn with a communication of such nature. I may say for myself that the news, when it came distinctly out, brought to me no manner of surprise. I had had reason to believe for many years that Mr. Gladstone's convictions were growing more towards a belief in the rightfulness and even the necessity of a scheme of domestic self-government for Ireland. I had seen how, year by year, Mr. Gladstone's faith in coercion measures had been falling away. I had seen how the heat of temper into which, at one time, he was often betrayed when vexed by the obstructive policy of the Irish representatives had changed into an apparent understanding of their purpose, and even into a certain sympathy with it, or, at all events, toleration for it.

MR. JOHN MORLEY, M.P.

From a photograph by the London Stereoscopic Company. In politics Mr. Morley is an advanced Liberal: he was Chief Secretary for Ireland in the Cabinets of 1886 and 1892, and is a close personal friend of Mr. Gladstone. He is even better known as an editor and author than as a statesman. His best-liked essays and biographies are those on Rousseau, Voltaire, Burke, Cobden, and Emerson. He is the editor of an edition of Boswell's "Johnson" and of the "English Men of Letters Series." He has edited successively the "Literary Gazette," the "Fortnightly Review," the "Pall Mal Gazette," and "Macmillan's Magazine."

[To be continued in the Magazine Number for November]



AN AVENUE IN THE THIERGARTEN, THE GREAT PARK IN BERLIN. SCHLOSS BELLEVUE IN THE DISTANCE

The Higher Life of Berlin

By Baron Hermann von Soden

AMONG the chief cities of Europe, Berlin, next to St. Petersburg, is the youngest. In 1640, when the Great Elector came to the throne, the city numbered 4,000 inhabitants. At that time Madrid had already passed the zenith of her glory. Not to mention eternal Rome, Paris was the center of civilization, London the emporium of the world, and Vienna the capital of the Holy Roman Empire of the German nations. When, after a reign of forty-eight years, the Great Elector was called away from a work which was the germ of a mighty future, his capital had grown fivefold. When, in 1740, the great King Frederick II. set out to gain the power of a monarch in addition to the inherited title, the royal capital and residence had increased to 98,000 inhabitants, again nearly fivefold. His reign brought 50,000 additional souls to the city, which now began to attract the notice of Europe. Within the next twenty quiet years the city increased by 10,000 only. The war decade, however, characterized by Jena, Leipzig, and the Belle Alliance, when Berlin again stood in the center of historical events, almost completed the second hundred thousand. To-day there are more than fifteen hundred thousand, the years since 1870 adding just half of that number to the capital. Thus during the last twenty-five years the population of Berlin has doubled.

Whoever, before 1870, came to Berlin—perhaps from the capitals of South Germany or from a commercial town along the Rhine—noticed no specific difference of character between the royal city of Prussia and his own native town, except perhaps an impression of even greater poverty, and also of a certain ungainly, stiff regularity. The Berlin which the stranger beholds to-day is essentially the work of the last twenty-five years. Only a few churches, narrow streets, and palaces are really old.

Berlin, though so modern, need not be ashamed to be seen. Perhaps in no other city of Europe has such activity prevailed in all municipal departments. The inhabitants themselves have likewise been pushed to an unresting life by this rapid growth; those who were natives, by the large demands of the influx of masses from outside; the latter, by the necessity of gaining a foothold and a livelihood, bringing about competition among themselves. This, probably, has given to our principal city, shot up out of the sand within two centuries, her specific character. Her noisy rush tells the stranger, This is the abode of labor. To be sure, there are also many places of amusement and recreation for the most widely differing tastes, but they are in considerable degree maintained by the visitors who crowd to Berlin the whole year round, the hottest summer months excepted. Every German who can will spend a few weeks in Berlin every few years, if he is not led to come oftener by one or the other of those conventions, assemblies, expositions, congresses, conferences of experts, etc., which continually follow each other in our capital. The young people of Germany in all spheres of society apparently esteem it a part of life to become acquainted with Berlin. Foreign-

BARON HERMANN VON SODEN

A distinguished German theologian and professor at the University of Berlin. He has been especially prominent among leaders of Christian social movements.

ers likewise, in great numbers and from all countries, help to make up the character of public life. Yet Berlin is a city of active work, the powerfully throbbing heart of Germany. Those idlers or *flaneurs* who elsewhere form part of the life of a great city, even if there were a larger number of them here, would hardly find their Boulevards in which to loiter away the livelong day. In spite of beautiful streets and artistic house-fronts, the solemnity of the struggle for life broods over our city.

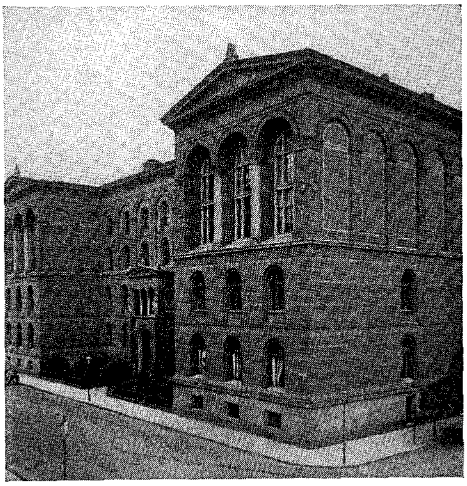
It is a variegated mixture of features, and not always blending happily or softly, which composes the picture of the population, if we essay to focus it more accurately. What has come down from the earliest time forms even to-day the principal type. Berlin is the city of the Prussian King, now also German Emperor; it is the city of high officials and officers, two circles with which the nobility, as far as that is not established in the country, is solidified. These two circles have, under the guidance of the princes, created the State, the heart of which is Berlin—that Berlin which itself, as the statistics introducing this sketch show, was developed by the princes to what it is to-day. And the key upon which the intercourse between the townspeople and these citizens is tuned makes it apparent that both sides are conscious of the facts above mentioned. Beside those two circles there stands a class of citizens, essentially solid, of eager activity, just as proudly conscious as the other of strength, and consequently by no means deficient in anxiously guarding its rights and privileges, nor wanting in sharp criticism of the governing and leading circles. The citizen's pride and the field where he seeks his honors is the municipal government, with its many offices of honor and trust. Alongside the classes described above there stand the mighty ones of yesterday, the large manufacturers—for Berlin has, as in all other fields, jumped into first place also as a manufacturing city of Germany—and the men of learning, the artists, the authors, whom the citizens consider their own aristocracy, so to speak, and in honoring whom they believe they honor themselves. Part of the physiognomy of the city, lastly, is formed by the Jews, more prominent by their property and their attitude than by their number, who are always recruiting themselves from the East, are operating on the Exchange and are partly engaged in commercial enterprises. By the great majority of the population they are felt (with more or less discomfort) to be an alien element, even although many hesitate to confess openly to such a feeling in the face of their liberalism. Hardly noticeable is the transition from the lower rank of small citizens to the workingmen, who to-day form the main portion of the population. Equipped with a very respectable education by the excellent public schools, supplemented by connective courses in special professional schools, and filled with a noteworthy thirst for education, they present the satisfactory picture of a class visibly pushing forward and onward. With few exceptions, they conceive the social democracy to be their predestined representative, having no close inner feeling with the other elements. It must be remembered that almost all of them have lately come to the

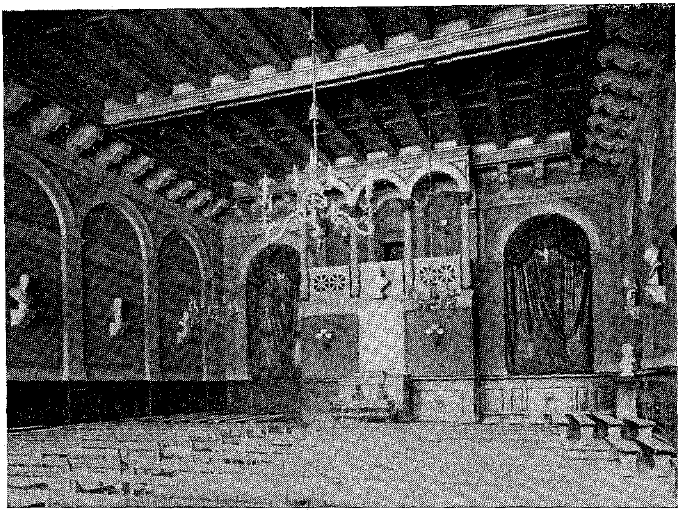
THE "UNTER DEN LINDEN" FROM THE SCHLOSSBRÜCKE, OR BRIDGE NEAR THE ROYAL PALACE
To the right is the Arsenal, now a Military Museum.

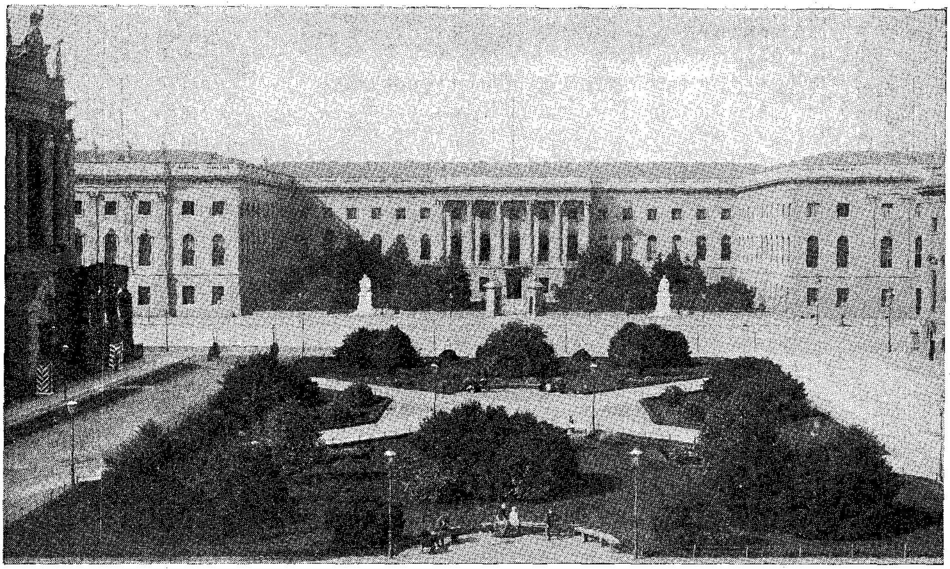
city, consequently they have not yet taken firm root in the soil of Berlin, not feeling quite at home yet. In any event, the home feeling has difficulty in springing up in the desert of a large city.

Perhaps the chief popular interest, besides those of wages, promotion, and position in all classes, is centered upon politics. This is shown, however, outside of workingmen's circles, more in political discussions than by political actions. Next comes the interest in education and art. The museums, open free to all; the periodical art exhibitions; the philharmonic concerts with classical programmes and perfect performances at twelve cents a ticket; the immense multitude of lectures and of educational advantages, in addition to the very numerous yet always overcrowded high schools, testify to that. A peculiar proof is offered by the "Urania," an institution founded with the object of popularizing scientific research in the fields of geography and astronomy by daily lectures, with the help of perfect and picturesque representations of the subjects of the lectures.

Most popularity, to be sure, is enjoyed by concerts given by military bands in beer-gardens, by the exhibitions in circuses and in variety theaters. The tired Berliner wants to rest in the evening. Thus, in spite of his own serious conception and mode of life, he prefers, in the theaters, serene and harmless pieces to the serious ones that treat of difficult problems. The churches are not overcrowded, except those of the most favorite preachers, yet the attendance has been increasing steadily during the last twenty years among the middle classes, and even more within the higher circles. The working class, as a rule, holds aloof, although resignations of church membership are rare despite powerful agitation. The large number of churches newly erected within the last few years has helped to increase the attendance. However, if we have churches enough, at the average ratio of one for every 20,000 souls, we still need twenty more, and, moreover, two or three every year for the yearly increase of population. Absolute freethinking, or even religious frivolity, of course, will find circles in every great city. But, on the whole, there is pervading here an earnestness of spirit, even though it may show more disposition toward simple morality than toward religion and its church manifestation, and within the religious sphere more toward a simple trust in God than toward a perfectly regulated doctrinal system. The church life moves almost exclusively in connection with the so-called "Landeskirche," which embraces the whole nation, standing in manifold and organic junction with the State, grown together and interwoven with the whole history of the nation. The nu-


ONE OF THE BERLIN SCHOOLS


THE AULA OR MAIN HALL IN THE SCHOOL ABOVE



THE MAIN BUILDING OF THE UNIVERSITY OF BERLIN

The University is attended by six thousand students.

merous little free congregations live mostly on the scanty secessions from this church. The Salvation Army honestly does all it can in its way, but without any success worth mentioning, and that, too, in spite of its endeavor to accommodate itself somewhat to the German character. It is repugnant to German character, especially to that of the deliberate North Germans, to transfer the push and hurry from the fields of labor and intellectual education to the innermost sphere of religious life.

Not half of its inhabitants of to-day were born in Berlin. There was a time when the Berliner had characteristics of his own, that distinguished him sharply from the men of Brandenburg, and from the other North Germans. Now such distinction is largely a thing of the past. However, the Berliner wit, quick, sharp, although essentially good-natured, is not yet lost. A certain swaggering propensity also, especially when away from their capital, the modern Berliners have readily accepted from their forefathers.

Prominent, however, among the traits of the modern as well as of the old Berliner, after his activity and hard work, is his sense of the solidarity of society. By the rapid growth of the city that trait was by necessity most urgently called into activity within an easily expanding field. To be sure, the youngest capital had the advantage of her older sisters in one point which facilitated all public-spirited endeavors. Her growth took place under the watchful eye, often enough under the protecting shield, of far-sighted, high-minded, and provident princes, so that necessary regulations for the healthful development of the city were never wanting. Moreover, this happened in a time when the experiences of other cities had induced a spirit of concern for the people's welfare in hygienic and intellectual respects. Thus Berlin does not comprise such crowded barracks of misery as are found in London, Paris, Rome. The leading authorities never lose command or control of the situation. Large and well-distributed public parks form the lungs of the breathing monster. Prussia, as is well known, has developed into her present form, in spite of the poverty of her soil and her unfavorable geographical conditions, first and foremost by the agency of her government. From the very beginning the State, and, under its guidance and control, the municipal authorities, worked hand in hand in missions of public benefit. The most important of these has been the policy of the State, during the last fifteen years, of publicly insuring the poorer class of the population against sickness, accidents, old age, and invalidism. This is like a huge dam against the swelling of want. As to the city government, there is a well-appointed Board of Charities, Berlin being divided for that purpose into 230 "poor districts." Within certain limits of every district a committee, consisting only of voluntary members, but who are sworn into their office of honor by the municipal government, administer independently the necessary relief for the poor. Such relief is restricted to a minimum of subsistence, on the principle of not supporting laziness but of only checking starvation. On the other hand, however, people without means receive out of the poor fund medical or legal help just as well as lodging and free burial. A large number of benefactors, called "Stifter," furnish homes for aged or sick persons of every rank. Hospitals always kept up to the standard open their doors to the poor without charge. Besides, the city, as mentioned above, has a multitude of legacies at its disposal for all sorts of charitable purposes.

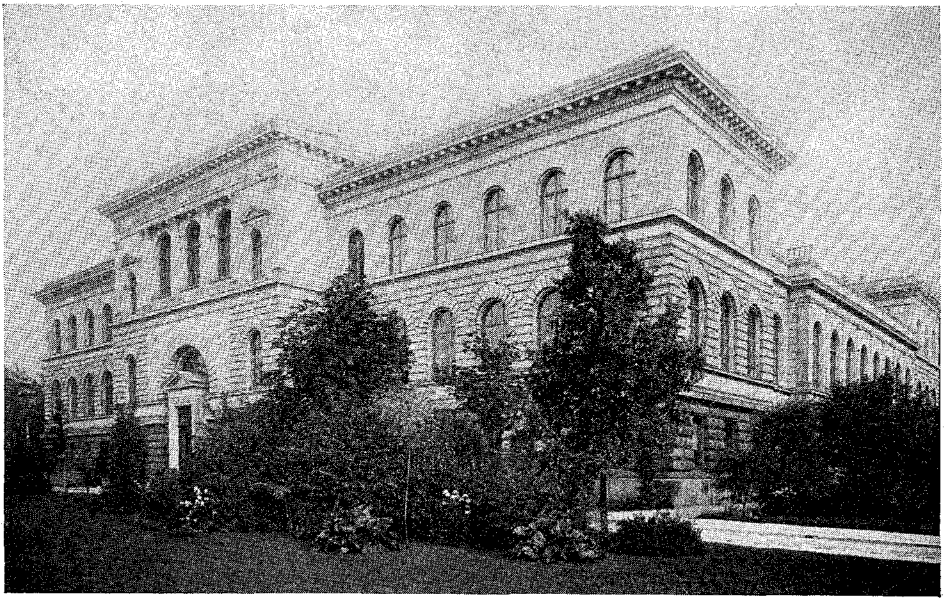
In the field of education State and city vie with each other in continually erecting new schools for the various needs of instruction. Clubs augment these facilities by lecture courses in special fields.

The care of orphans is intrusted to the municipal authorities, under supervision of the State. In every one of those 240 poor districts there is a common orphanage board, consisting also of voluntary members. According to circumstances the orphans are placed with families or in the large municipal orphan asylum. A few years ago an additional orphanage board was formed by volunteers extending over the whole city, in aid of orphans after they have left school, the mission of this board being to furnish for every orphan, in addition to his law-appointed guardian, an adviser who shall guide him into a proper calling. The blind, the deaf and dumb, the epileptics, are also educated, brought up, guarded, and cared for at the expense of the State in cases where the families are destitute. For the blind, after they have left school, there exist municipal and State institutions in which they are prepared for a profession that will support them. Hand in hand with the other clubs there are those whose province it is to care for the blind, to help to find work or a home for them, where one or the other is wanting.

Finally, mention may be made of the great municipal savings-bank, with its many sub-offices, where even the smallest amounts are accepted, and its counterpart, the municipal pawn-office, the witness of so many a bitter parting.

A pronounced public spirit is manifested by the multitude of charitable institutions (the administration of nearly all of which has been assigned to the city), and of mutual benefit societies. The lodges of Freemasons likewise play an important part, although behind the scenes for the eye of the public. Probably most of our citizens belong to some mutual benefit association.

At the side of these law-sanctioned and mutually benefiting institutions for the common weal stands the shifting world of voluntary charity. There is a conscious and clear distinction between such enterprises as only

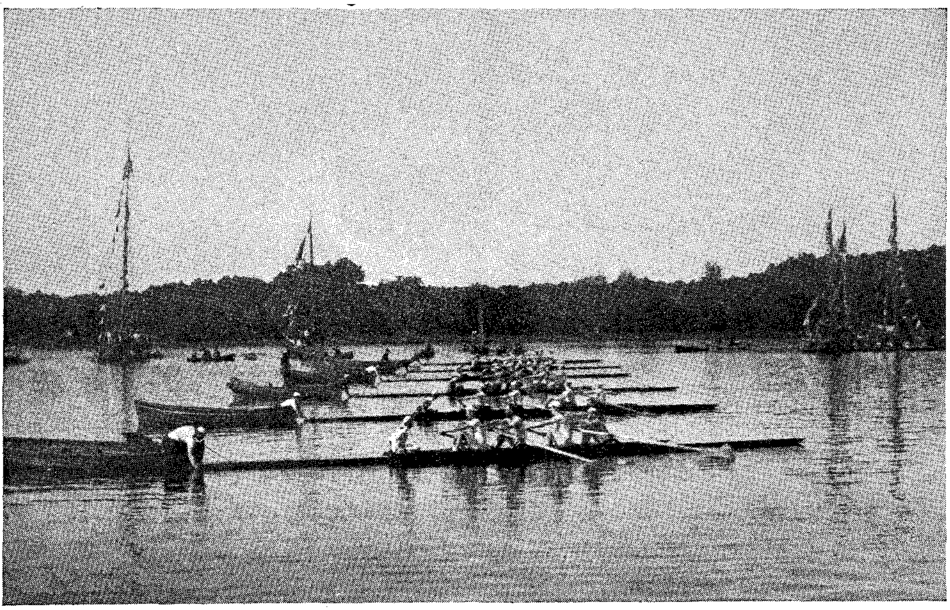


THE POLYTEKNIKUM OR TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL

Attended by fifteen hundred students and with accommodation for two thousand seek to check an external need and those which desire to win souls for the eternal world, by showing something of love, the heart of that world. Hence they try to liberate from those cares that press men down in the dust, and to save them from the iron grasp of despair that threatens to crush them in its hold. These last works of love are comprised in the province of the "Inner Mission," for it is necessary to do missionary work in the midst of Christendom to save from unbelief and sin. In both "camps"—one must almost use this phrase, although in the past few years mutual confidence has visibly increased—the work goes on, aided by zeal, ingenuity, and wealth. Within this space only a few characteristic enterprises can be emphasized.

An institution built on a large scale for the purpose of enlarging the compass of industrial activity for women is the wonderfully flourishing Lette House, so called after its foundress. It contains a commercial and industrial school for women; a school for typesetters, with a complete printing establishment; a school for photographers, with instruction in drawing; a school for dressmaking and plain sewing; a school for artistic fine sewing, especially also for fine embroidery; a washing and ironing department; a restaurant for all pupils, with a cooking-school; a school for housekeeping; lastly, a library. Besides these departments devoted to branches of education, there are an employment office, a fund for selling sewing-machines to poor women on the installment plan, a pension and relief fund for the teachers and officials of the institute, a fund to advance money to women who wish to establish themselves independently in business, and legacies for remitting the slight expenses for lessons in the different house schools.

While women of the great middle class are mostly interested in these enterprises, the higher strata are engaged especially by the "Vaterländischer Frauenverein," which stands under the direct supervision of the Empress, branching out through the whole country, and trying to relieve all kinds of difficulties by appropriate undertakings, but with the chief aim of preparing for times of war. This league finds its complement in the more technical direction of nursing the sick—in war times, the wounded—in the German Red Cross Society, which likewise spreads all over the country, but is uniformly managed by a central committee stationed at Berlin. In connection with the Red Cross are the Samaritan Clubs for assistance in accidents, societies of trained volunteer nurses, and others, all of which have a double equipment, so to speak, for times of war and of peace. There is also a Frauenverein for the nursing of the sick in the colonies.



A REGATTA ON THE MÜGGELSEE, A LAKE NEAR BERLIN

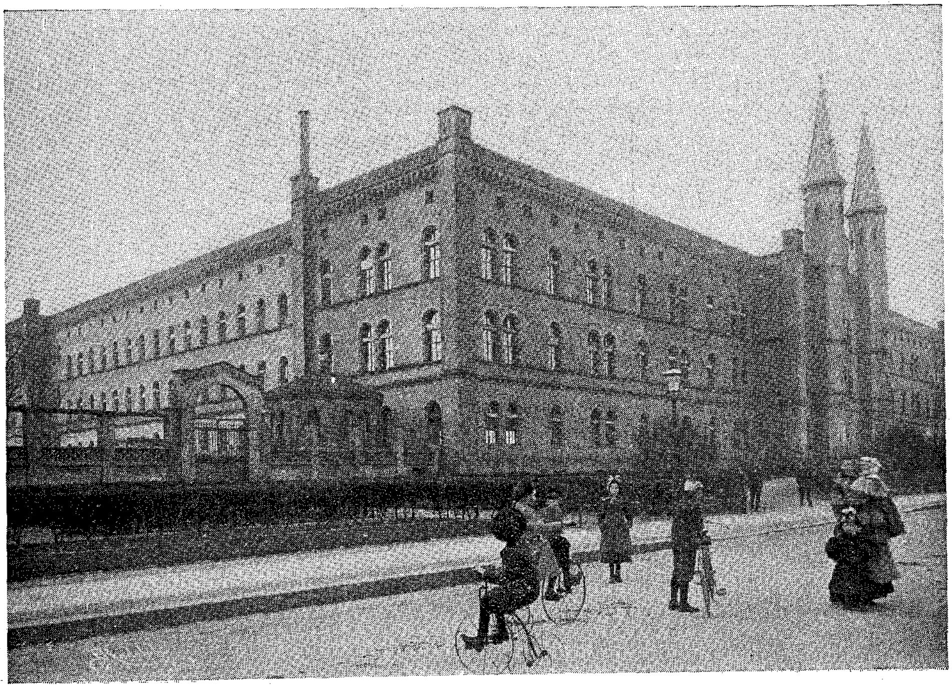
These institutions, reaching beyond the limits of Berlin, are joined by a long list of societies whose field of activity is restricted to Berlin proper. Perhaps our first attention may be claimed by the so-called "Frauenhilfe," maintaining in the city fourteen stations, with from six to nine deaconesses each, for the nursing of sick people in their homes. Then follows the "Evangelischer Kirchenverein," which in the course of not quite ten years has furnished Berlin with about forty-three new churches, partly by large subsidies to the congregations, partly by independent building enterprises. Its chief achievement is the Emperor William Memorial Church, erected at total cost of over a million dollars.

SKATING AT THE ROUSSEAU ISLAND IN THE THIERGARTEN

For the relief of spiritual troubles, besides the Established Church, there is, in the first place, the City Mission, with its annual disbursement of forty to fifty thousand dollars. Its activity is very multifarious; many contend that it is too active. It ranges from kindergartens and house-evenings, sewing-schools and girls' clubs, public meetings and prayer-meetings, to a system of house visits, branching out far and wide, by the city missionaries, and to an extended printing-house business. Secondary fields of its activity are its labors among discharged prisoners and among fallen girls. Then there is the so-called "Schrippenkirche" (piece-of-bread-and-butter church)—a meeting of homeless people on Sunday mornings, with a morning meal and a morning service. There is also a distribution of short sermons among Sunday workers in the streets.

Care for the youth of Berlin is, in the first place, attended to by the "Krippen" (mangers or nurseries for infants), and then the kindergartens, where children between two and six years are taken for the day off the hands of mothers who are compelled to work out. School-children without home supervision find, during their free time, admittance and superintendence in the "Kinderhorte," or children's homes, the oldest children in manual-training schools and other "Beschäftigungs-anstalten;" some charitable women have formed a "club for the protection of children" for the purpose of visiting those small children who are intrusted to the care of strangers. Children's school kitchens have also been established. These appease the hunger of the poorer school-children whose homes are at a great distance from school. School-children in need of a recreation are furnished a four weeks' outing in the country in "vacation colonies;" perhaps 30,000 children every year enjoy that blessing. For girls, after they have left school, there are Girls' and Sunday Clubs, a great number of "Herbergen" (lodging-houses) and institutions for the education of servant-girls, with or without a religious aspect. For the boys there are boys' clubs, Young Men's Christian Associations, and numerous other associations for purely social or educational purposes. Our Y. M. C. A.'s are far behind the flourishing development in America.

Berlin also comprises a goodly number of "Herbergen zur Heimat" for the traveling population. They are always overcrowded, and, in addition, a number of trades-unions maintain besides their individual "Gesellenherbergen." In this connection may be named the "Volksküchen," or popular restaurants, of three or four decades' standing, which, admirably organized and uniformly managed, offer in all quarters of the city excellent dinners and suppers at from four to eight to the labor population, often working far away from their homes. During the last five years this work has been enlarged by the establishment of "Volkskoffeehallen," or popular coffeehouses, which are self-supporting, having a very good run of customers. The public baths, furthermore, show a rapid growth. They are erected partly by the city, partly by associations, and they understand how to attract even the unaccustomed by their accommodations. There exist two large asylums for the destitute and homeless, where they can gather together, those wrecks washed ashore by the tide of life in a great city. These are often half-grown girls sharing with their recently born babes the rags in which their emaciated bodies totter along; thugs, whose strength is their fists; and cunning rogues with a pale, piercing flash in their half-closed eyes. The jetsam washed in of an evening here, floating in to sleep once more under a roof, makes of these places in the winter months profitable hunting-grounds for the police. Many of the guests find their livelihood at last under police supervision in the municipal workhouse, the inmates of which do the street-cleaning, besides many other things. Others of their own accord land in the workingmen's colony, founded by an association on the principle of voluntary application in order to re-establish there by their own work their wardrobe and muscles before venturing out anew on a voyage into public life. There is a similar colony for women which helps them to regain a respectable existence. There are, of course, "Rettungsanstalten," or institutions of rescue for the endangered and neglected among the young, and the institutions for the prevention of falling into vice. There are also "Erziehungshäuser," disciplinary establishments for girls in danger of falling into vice. Then there is the "Magdalenenstift," with its additional "homestead" erected within the last few years, an institution which admits and succors fallen girls during the hard time when they,

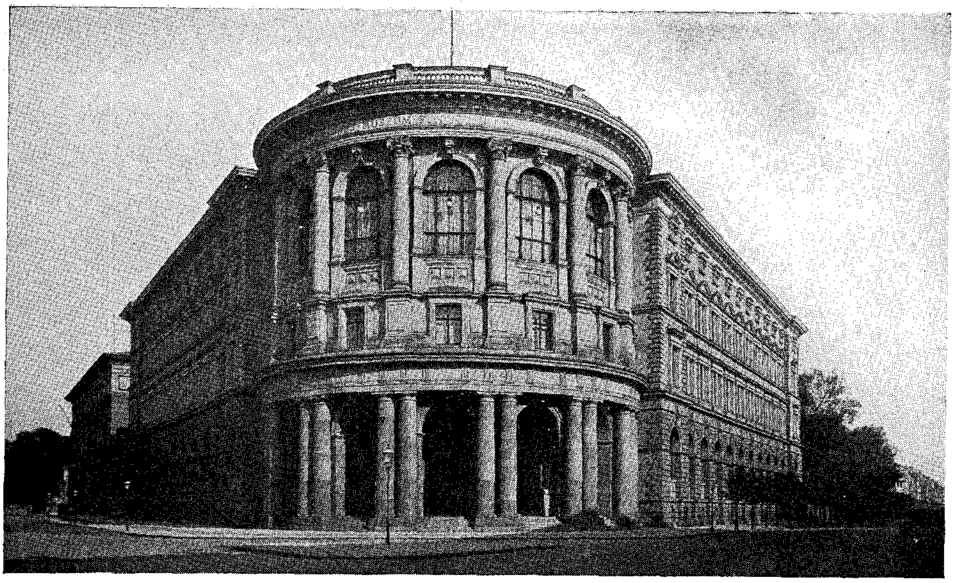


THE BETHANIEN HOSPITAL

THE SCHAUSPIELHAUS, OR ROYAL THEATER

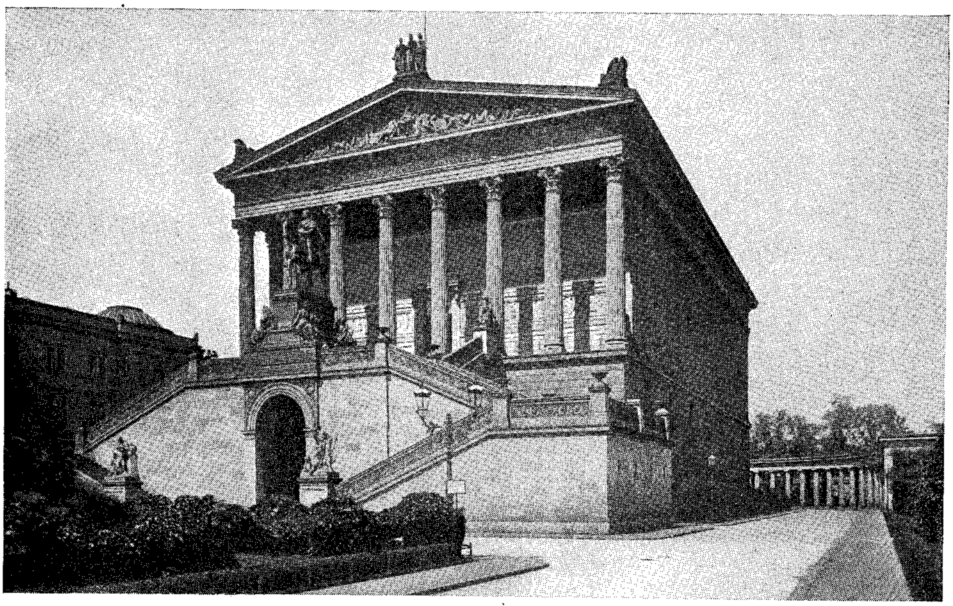
in consequence of their fall, have to pass through "woman's travail" without home or husband.

The public-spirited building associations bring us to an entirely different field of vicissitudes in a large city. These associations, incorporated under various statutes and by-laws, and now assisted by loans from the large means of the municipal insurance funds for the aged and the invalid, aim to put an end to the urban-gypsy life—the continuous moving from place to place—by furnishing their members with a permanent lodging in the city or a little home in the suburbs. The first among municipal questions with which the public is occupied is how to satisfy this longing for a settled family residence, for a "home of our own," although the difficulty is less here than, for example, in London. Nothing is a better safeguard against certain roving habits of "the bird on the bough" (from which the Social Democratic movement draws some of its strength) than the settling down in the possession of a home. To be sure, those who seriously concern themselves with this question strive for far other goals than can be reached at present. Only inventions in the field of power-development and of means of transportation will adequately realize such hoped-for benefits. By depopulating those deserts of masonry called capitals, they may enable mankind to build again their homes on the same place where their cradles stood, in the midst of swelling, budding nature. But until then we shall always need still more of such places, which are meant to restore that which in the capital is ruined more quickly than elsewhere; I mean hospitals and sanitariums of all kinds. The start here was made by sick funds established by laws of the State for erecting "convalescent houses" for their sick on a large scale, because they could thereby disburden their coffers all the quicker. Afterwards the city built a number of just such homesteads in the wooded quarters of the neighborhood for the needy and uninsured sick. One society with a large membership founds sanitariums for destitute consumptives after the fact has been established that simply a dust-free air, not necessarily of a higher altitude, is the best remedy. A whole ring of such institutions is forming around the city at the outermost circle beyond the residential suburbs. Within the city, through the network of streets, there is a circle of "sanitary posts" and "accident stations" where there are always physicians with the necessary personal and material aid on hand for immediate relief in sudden cases. Besides the large municipal and State hospitals mentioned above, these posts also care for patients. The Deaconess houses and two Catholic hospitals also admit patients. These houses of a religious character, which are of moderate dimensions, are pervaded by a rather more pronounced home air. The caretaking is not satisfied by the mere technical claims of physical hygiene, but aims to

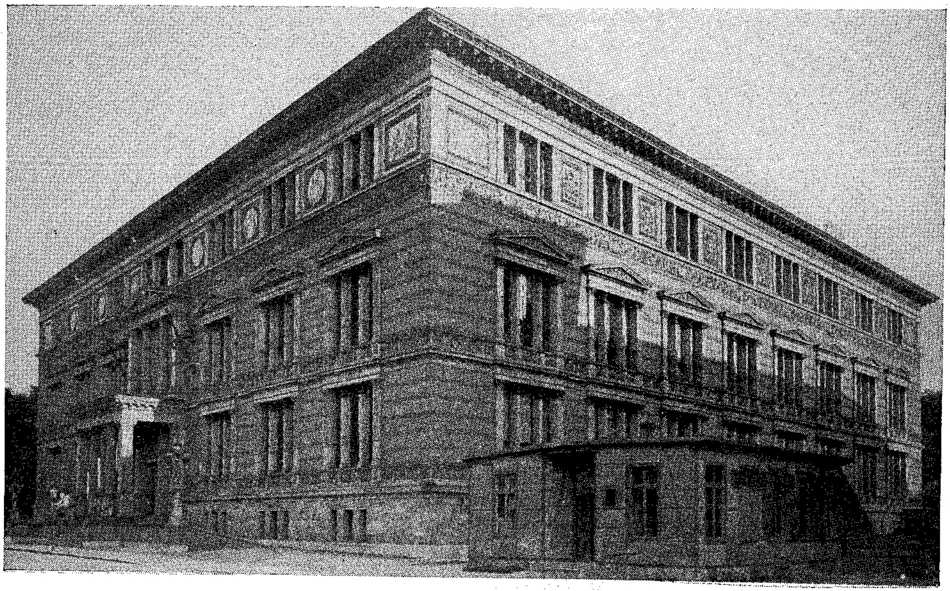


THE ETHNOGRAPHICAL MUSEUM

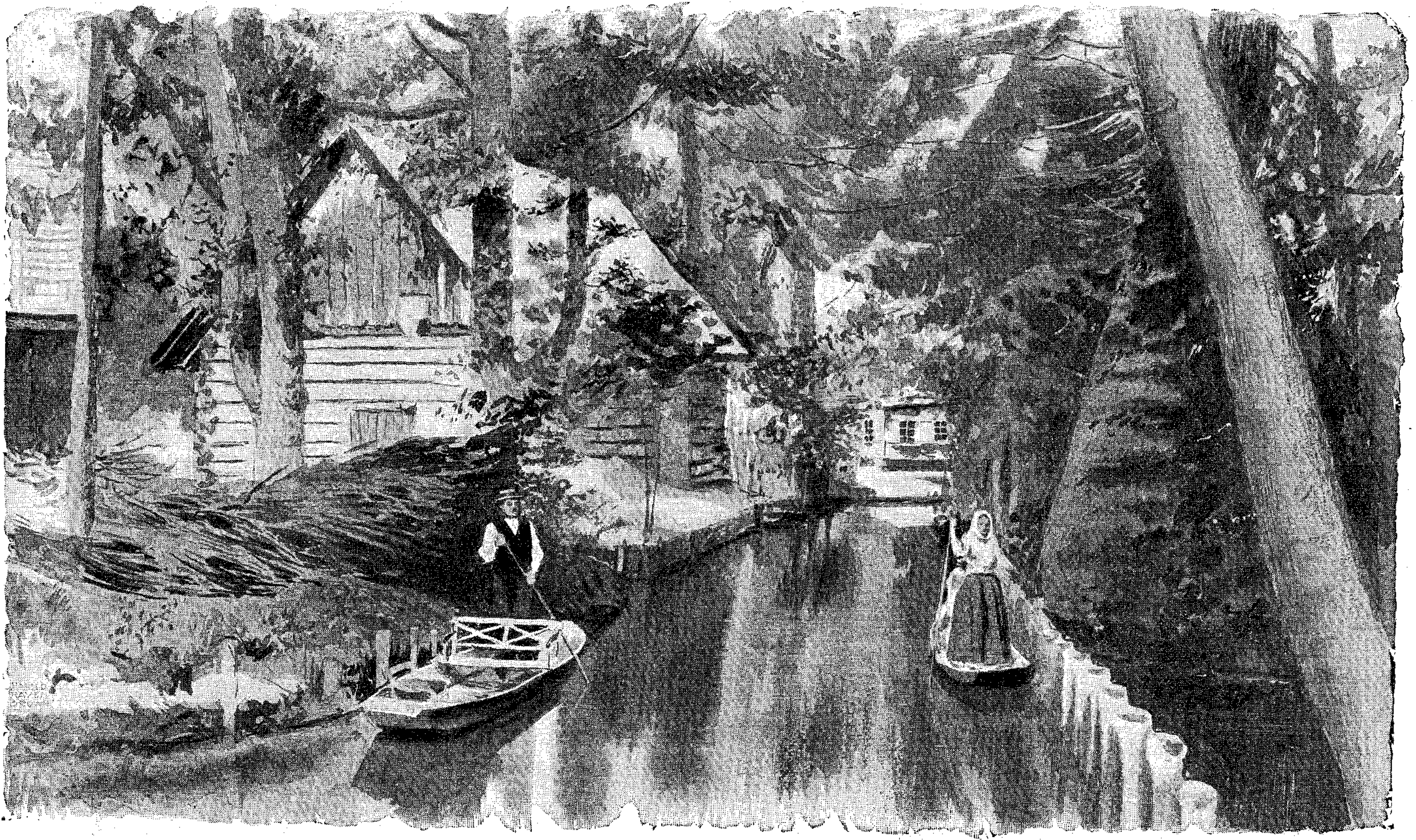
THE OLD MUSEUM



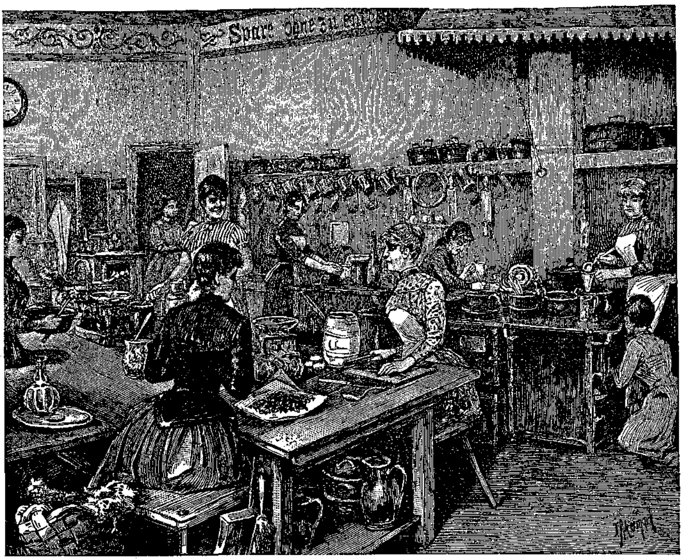
THE NATIONAL GALLERY



THE INDUSTRIAL MUSEUM



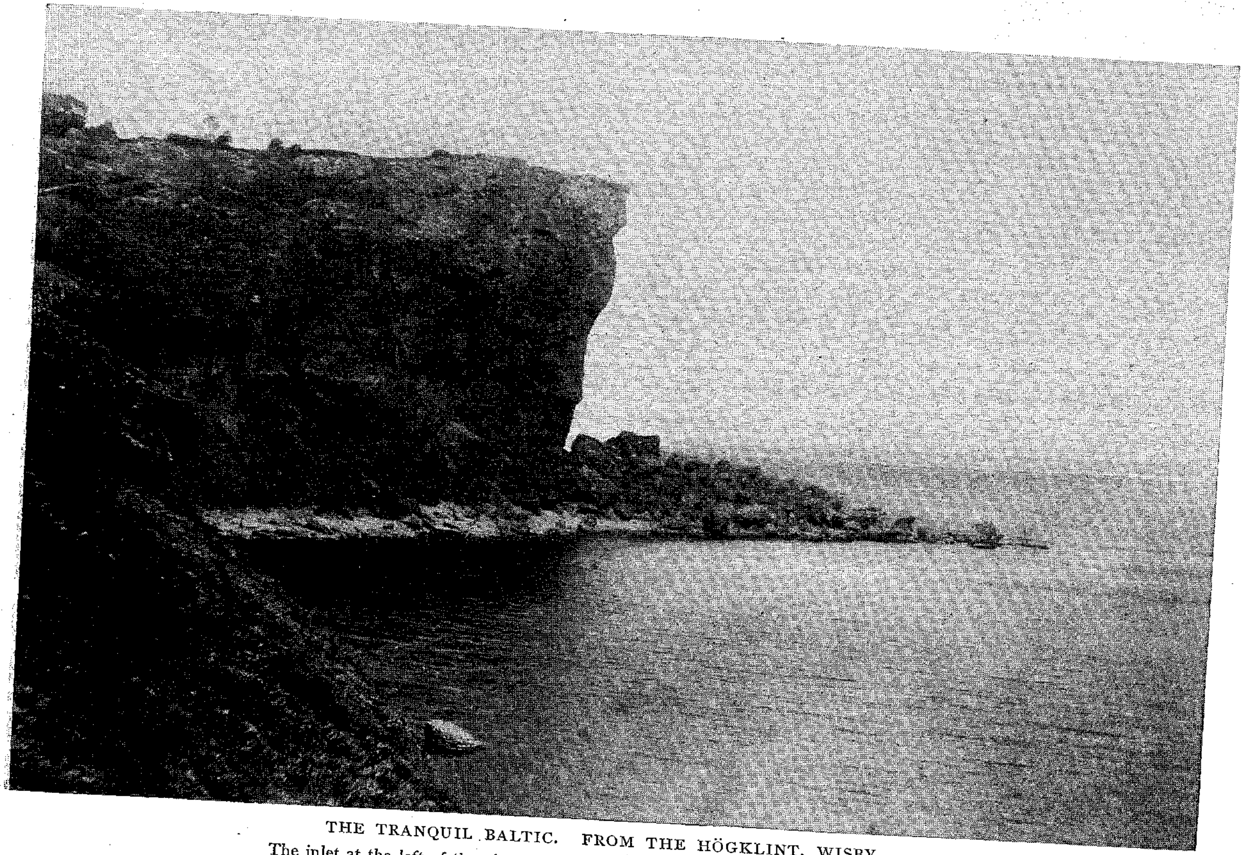
A SCENE IN THE SPREEWALD NEAR BERLIN



SCENE IN A BERLIN COOKING-SCHOOL

meet spiritual difficulties at the same time. It is executed not only with the hands but with the heart. Here the "Sisters of Mercy" are educated, who afterwards, as far as they are not needed in the "mother house," are much sought for by communities and institutions for the multifarious services of Christian charity. One portion of them find service in those "Empress stations," as they are called by the people, which, as has been stated, were erected by the "Frauenhilfe." A much larger portion, however, serve in church communities, every one of which perhaps employs by this time at least two "community sisters," besides its minister, in a regular system of caring for the community. They remain from early till late, often day and night, in the homes of the poor and of the lower classes, at the bedside of the sick, tending to the children as well as to their sick mothers. Or they hunt up the poor too proud to beg, and go after the young in peril. They gather the children in afternoon lessons in mending-schools, the old people in the evening in reading circles, the girls on Sundays in cheery meetings. They preach by their deeds, preach where the solemn word can find no audience; they stretch the electric wires between the houses of comfort and the corners of misery, and take satisfaction that the word passes from one to the other and is heard. One thing as yet is lacking in almost all church communities—the influence of the church as a center about the communal institutions, the nursing of a mutually protective spirit, and the working of charity, all of which, under the stress of modern conditions, have been recognized again as belonging to the fundamental functions in the life of a Christian community. The blessed success of the intelligent activity of the Deaconesses is the best and all-convincing evidence for the necessity of complementing the service of the faith in words by the service of charity in deeds. The immense and disjointed malformity of activity among the societies begins to call for an organic arrangement in the sphere of communistic enterprises, in which by this time nearly everybody is in a certain measure engaged actively or passively. Propositions and schemes for such an arrangement are not wanting. One of them, and that which probably will most quickly be put through, aims to subordinate and incorporate into the church life all those enterprises which by their nature are suited to it. To be sure, there is need of still other work, and on a larger scale. The Christian love of brotherhood will not be allowed to stop at the rescue-work in single cases, but will have to endeavor to take such measures within the life of the community as will better protect and elevate the individual and be better suited to the modern conditions of "Erwerb" (wage-earning) and intercourse than those measures of the present time. It belongs to the character of our city both to engage in multifarious activity to stem the tide of the apparent needs and also to think out methods of centralizing charity work itself. It is enough that there is a conviction of the needfulness of reforms. When that altruism which cannot look upon troubles that can be relieved is aroused to a yet more active life, it will not be lacking in wisdom to find the right means, not only for the cure of its victims, but also for the abolishment of its causes.

May a later observer be permitted, after all these hopes of the future in some way have become realities of the present, to present



THE TRANQUIL BALTIC. FROM THE HÖGKLINT, WISBY

The inlet at the left of the picture approaches the entrance to the "Robbers' Cave."

pictures from Germany's capital clearer, more uniform, and more transparent than are offered by this sketch!

Then will the capital be called, not only "The abode of activity," but also "The abode of peace."

Wisby

An Ancient Hanseatic Town

By Walter Hyams

THERE is hardly a more interesting chapter in history than that which relates to the trading alliance or association known as the Hanseatic League, one of the most remarkable confederations the world has ever seen, which flourished during the Middle Ages. Neither the exact circumstances out of which it grew nor the date of its origin is positively known, but it certainly may be referred, in point of time, to the middle of the thirteenth century.

The first impulse to mercantile union can be attributed to the dangers of traveling during that period.

In those days, when navigation was still imperfect, and when the seas were infested with pirates, it was necessary to creep cautiously along the coast and avoid as much as possible the open sea. To increase their powers of resistance, it was customary for merchants to undertake their voyages in larger or smaller companies. Moreover, the state of trade frequently required a long stay, and the depositing of goods in the meantime in the care of strangers. This gradually led to the acquiring of common possessions abroad, such as lodgings, storehouses, etc.

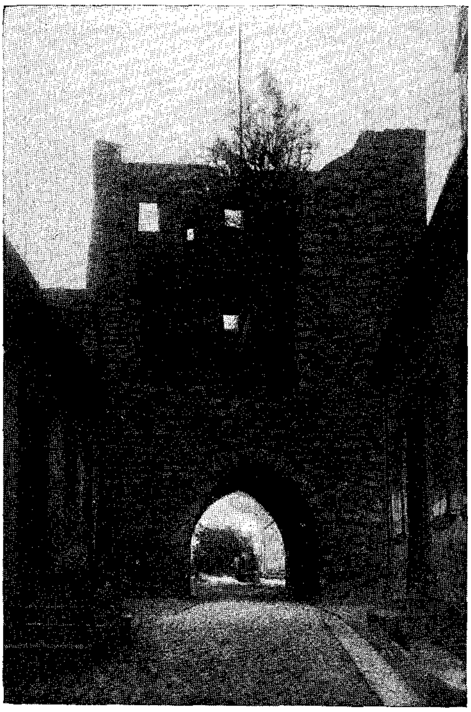
This common depot, or factory as it is often called, became the central point of the Union or Hansa thus formed by the merchants. At its head stood the elders, whose functions were to administer justice and preside at all general discussions as to its relations to the natives of the country.

It was by means of these orderly unions that the German merchants obtained valuable concessions, chiefly in trade and taxes, from the people among whom they sojourned.

In 1255 more than seventy cities, at the head of which were Worms and Mentz, joined with the Archbishops of Mentz and Cologne in a league, the object of which was to resist the tyrannical proceedings of the nobility, who had begun to envy their rising wealth, and to maintain a safe intercourse by land between Lubeck and Hamburg, and the establishment of some sort of law and police.

This incidentally recalls to my mind that in the University of Upsala, near Stockholm, is a copy of an interesting proclamation issued by the magistrates of Lubeck, dated 1304, announcing that they used the same mint and the same coins used by the citizens of Hamburg, and that they maintained at their own expense "thirty-two" horsemen and the magistrates of Hamburg "eight" horsemen, for the protection of merchandise going by land between the two cities, and stating the sums charged for their escort, in proportion to the amount to be transported.

The true purpose of the Hansa, and especially of the Baltic towns, was to conduct the



THE EAST GATE

The building on the left was formerly the toll-keeper's home, and the present occupant shows with pride the room where King Oscar of Sweden dines on his visits to Wisby.

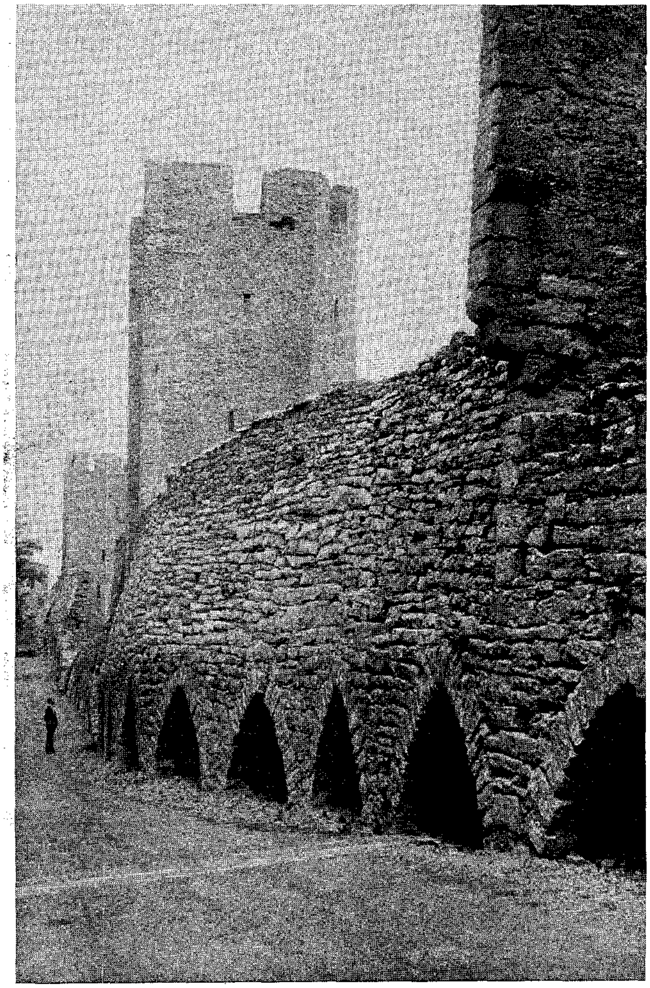
commerce between the east and west of Europe; but the hostility of the Scandinavian countries prevented, to some extent, the successful carrying out of these plans, and so from an early period the League stood in a position of watchful hostility towards those countries.

It was the careful maintenance of this watch over the Baltic that gave Lubeck its position in the League, and also gave the League its political as well as its mercantile power.

For many years the relations between the Hanseatic merchants and the Danes were anything but cordial, and later they became those of open hostility. The Danes were the only serious rivals the Hansa had, as Denmark had, as now, control of the Sound and the Great Belts, besides holding possessions in the south of Sweden, off whose shores the great herring industry, one of the principal sources of wealth to the League, were in those days carried on.

The Baltic Hansa towns were greatly oppressed in their commerce by the additional dues which Denmark had imposed upon all ships passing the Sound, and in order to strengthen themselves they entered into an association for the purpose of mutual defense.

It then comprised from sixty to eighty cities, which were divided into four classes. Lubeck was at the head of the first class, and had under it Hamburg, Wismar, Bremen, etc. Cologne was at the head of the second class, with twenty-nine towns under it. Brunswick was at the head of the third class, consisting of thirteen towns. Dantzic was at the head of the fourth class, having under it eight towns in its vicinity, and several scattered in more remote sections.



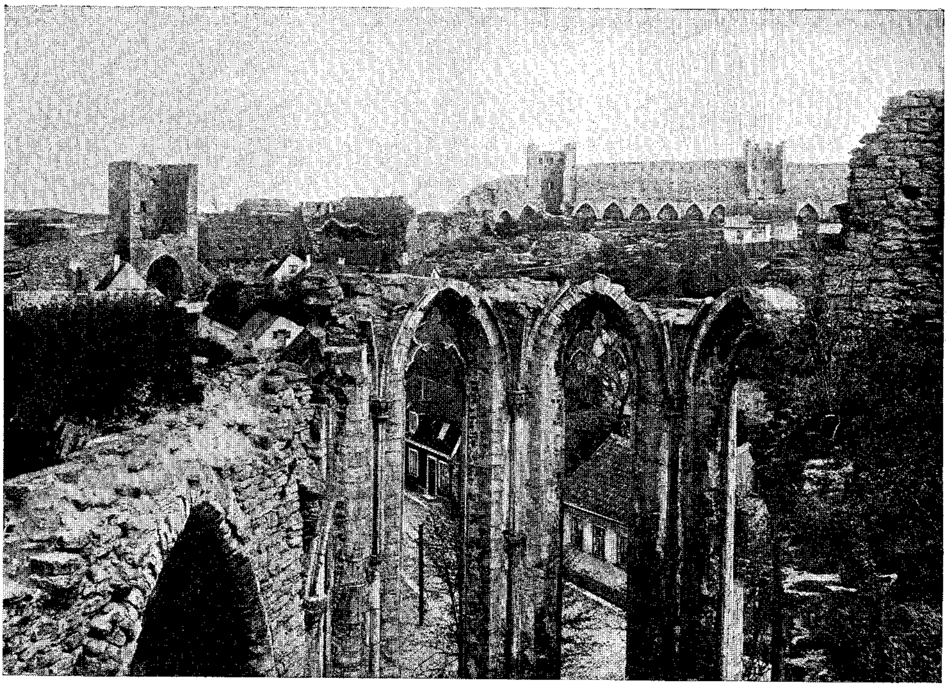
A SECTION OF THE OLD WALLS

Showing the opening made by the victorious Waldemar on his entry. The middle tower is the one where the maiden was imprisoned.

The supreme authority of the League was vested in the deputies of the different cities assembled in congress. In it they discussed all their measures, decided upon the sums each city should contribute to the national fund, and upon all questions that arose between the League and other powers as well as among the members themselves.

They met, on an average, once every three years, or when occasion required it. The place for the meeting of the congress was usually Lubeck, which was considered the capital of the League, and there its archives were kept. It was a standing rule of the League that no city should be admitted into it that was not a seaport or on a navigable river or did not keep the keys of its own gates.

The league between Hamburg and Lubeck is believed to be the origin of the Hansa, as the real importance of these cities is to be dated from their union with



THE RUINS OF ST. NICHOLAS

Through the arches can be seen one of the streets of Wisby, and in the distance part of the old wall.

the League. Just when the alliance in question was established is not definitely known, but the more general opinion seems to be that it dates from the year 1235.

The most important German mercantile settlements were founded in Wisby, London, Novgorod, Bergen, and Bruges. Wisby was the central point of the Baltic trade; the others represent the four extreme points of North German commerce.

Wisby differed from the other settlements in the fact that the Germans there were not merchants making a temporary visit, but were real settlers living side by side with the native population. This station was also the chief depot for the trade with Russia.

Wisby is in the island of Gotland, which is the largest outlying possession of Sweden, and is situated in the Baltic Sea, 130 miles south of Stockholm, from whence the voyage takes about twelve hours, half of which is spent going between the pretty islands of Fake Mälar or Saltsea.

Gotland has, including the town of Wisby, several harbors: on the east coast, Slite, an excellent naval port, and Rone; on the west coast, Klinte, Burgsvik; and on the northward, Farösund. The principal place in the inner country is the village of Hemse, where the quaint, old-fashioned, narrow-gauge railway of Wisby has its terminus. Gotland has a Governor and a Bishop of its own.

The climate is extremely mild, and the summer's heat is never oppressive, the island being surrounded by the Baltic. Rain falls so sparingly that the tillage often suffers from it. The island reposes on limestone, whence the best limestone in the north is broken; the value of which as a building material is shown by almost one hundred churches nearly a thousand years old, which stand to-day as monuments of the past glory of the history of Wisby.

The streets are narrow, hilly, and crooked, winding here and there under vaults; and everywhere rise mighty masses of Hanseatic buildings. Everything is adapted to give the town an antique appearance, and with a slight effort of the imagination one can easily dream one's self back into the Middle Ages.

The town is still surrounded by the old wall, one of the most interesting antiquities in the North. It is here and there somewhat decayed and fallen to pieces, having resisted the storms of more than seven centuries. You enter the town through three gates of considerable size, one from the north, one from the south, and one from the east.

Over the wall rise numerous towers of various sizes. The number of grounded towers is twenty-eight, and between them were nearly twenty saddle-towers, of which only nine remain. Of these towers the most remarkable are the "Silverhattan" and "Jungfrutornet"—so called after the legend that a young girl, being in love with the young king Waldemar Atterdag of Denmark, treasonably admitted him into the town. It is unnecessary to say that she did not elicit any applause for her action, but was walled in alive by her infuriated townspeople. The tower to this day is known as the Virgin Tower. Within the walls the town contains old ruins of churches partly annexed to monasteries belonging to the different nations that lived in Wisby during the age of its grandeur.

Waldemar III., who ascended the Danish throne in 1340, devoted the early part of his reign to the recovery of the lands which Denmark had lost during the recent troubles. In 1361 he sailed to Gotland, and surprised and captured the town of Wisby. The inhabitants, unprepared and unarmed, were unable to offer much resistance, and according to history it was a "terribly bloody fight that raged outside the walls of Wisby," the site of which to this day is marked by a cross on the spot where eighteen hundred Gotlanders fell: "ANTE PORTAS WISBY IN MANIBUS DANORUM CECIDERUNT GUTENSES"—runs the inscription. (Before the Gates of Wisby the Goths fell under the hands of the Danes.)

As was the custom among the conquerors of olden days, Waldemar, it is said, entered the city, not by the gates that had been forcibly taken, but by a breach he especially had made for this purpose in the town walls. In substantiation of this, the gap, too, is shown to this day. Success seemed at first to incline to his arms. Finally he was completely defeated by the forces of the League and its allies, and was even obliged to fly from his kingdom. At length the regents to whom the government of Denmark had been intrusted during the absence of the monarch concluded a peace with the League under conditions dictated by the latter.

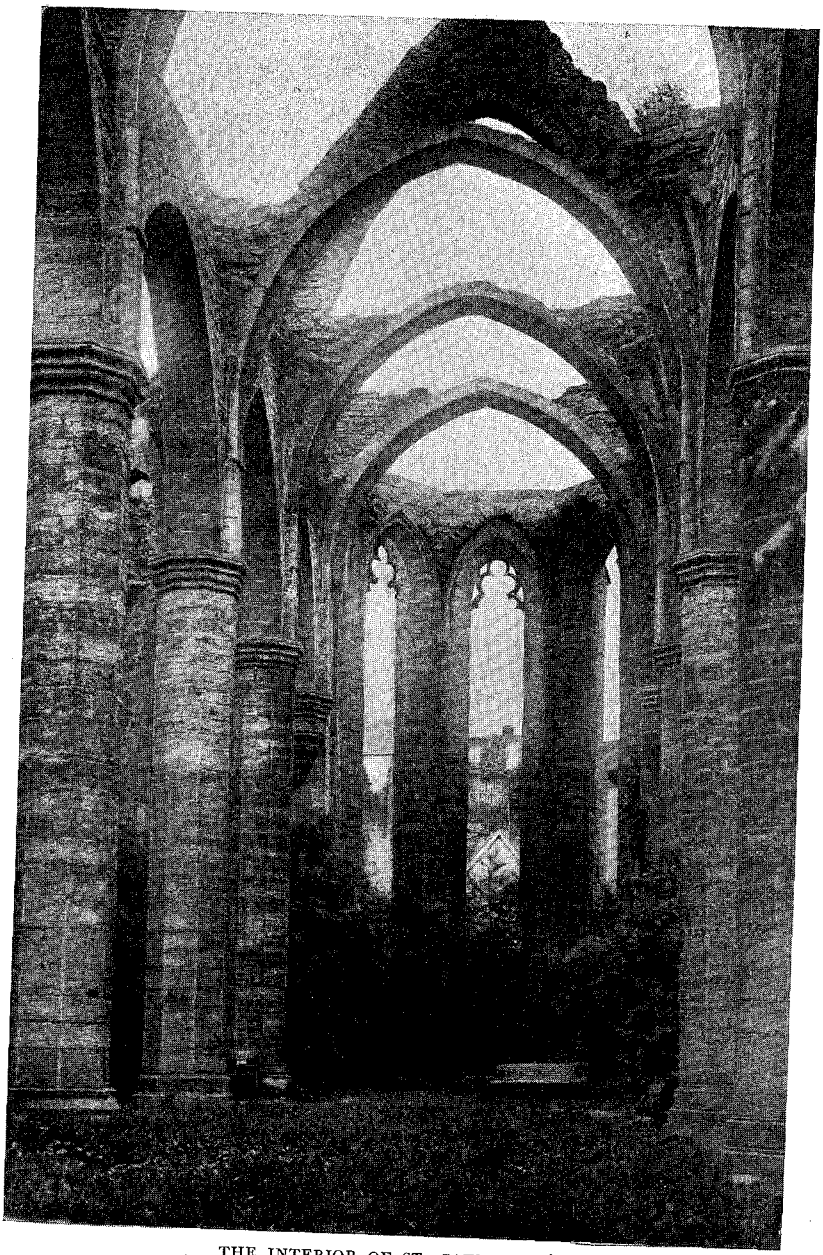
At the north part of the town is the Church of St. Nicholas, which was the monastery church of the Dominicans. It was built in the year 1240, and is considered one of the most splendid of the ruins of the North. Originally built in the Roman style, it was afterwards altered in several parts, and is now divided lengthwise into three naves, with ten square pillars. High up on the western gable are two rosette-like excavations, in which, according to tradition, there were placed two mighty carbuncles which shone as a beacon-light, and were used as such. These jewels were torn from their places and carried off by Waldemar, to his own misfortune it is said. The Gotland mariner still avers that on certain clear nights he can see the great carbuncles gleaming from out the deep.

The All Saints' Church, in its neighborhood, is of construction peculiar to the North. It consists of an octagonal building in two stories, one above the other, with a choir common to both. In the lower part, in Roman style, the vault is supported by four pillars. The upper part, in the older Gothic style, has also four pillars. A narrow primitive staircase reaches to the top, and, after scrambling in an apparently undignified manner through a small but decidedly unsymmetrical opening, a splendid view of land and sea may be obtained.

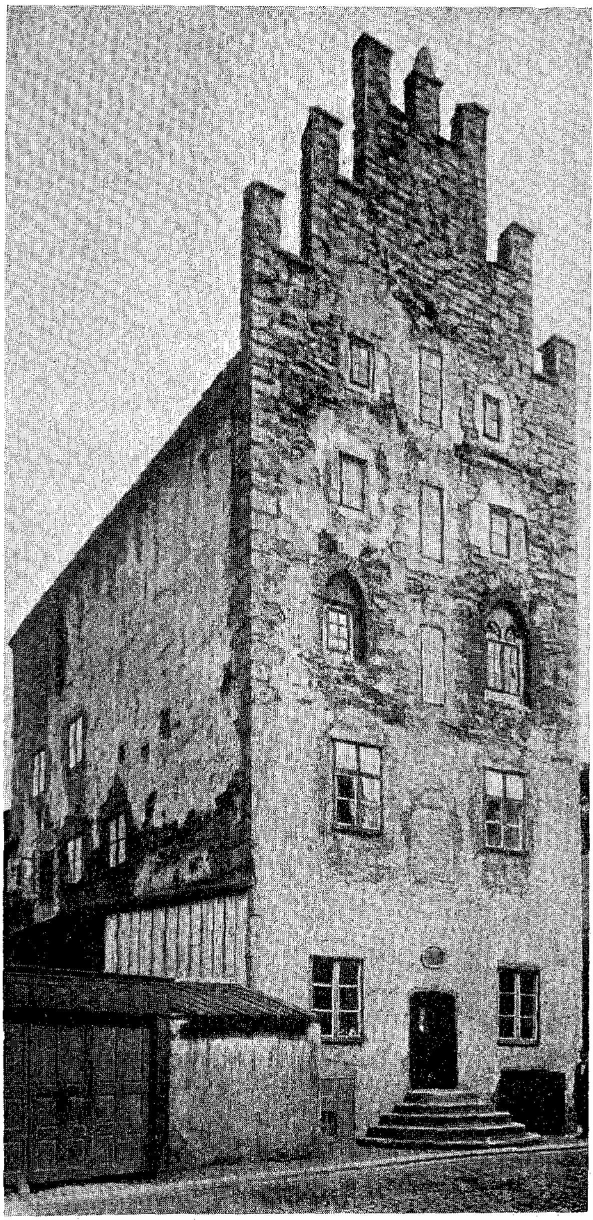
St. Clemens, a little further on, was built in the first half of the thirteenth century, in later Roman style, and is now much decayed. It is a long building; its vault was formerly supported by four pillars in two rows, although at present one on each side is all that remains. This church was ruined in 1525 by the Lubeck troops.

The finest of all the church ruins of Wisby is unquestionably St. Catherine. Built about 1233, it was the monastery church of the Franciscans. It is situated near the market-place, and owes its name to Catherine of Alexandria, its patroness. Its length is 57.4m., the breadth 17m. It consists of an oblong building with twelve octagonal pillars in two rows and a pentagonal choir. Originally built in Roman style, it has been at several times altered to the Gothic. The roof has disappeared; only the airy arches remain. The inner part is of exquisite beauty. On the walls and round the windows winds the ivy, and when the sun casts its rays the coloring is magnificent, which is still more the case at full moonshine.

Frequently societies from the Continent go here for a short stay; and while Wisby might seem to the foreigner appropriate for anything except picnics, the sacredness of the buildings themselves seems to be forgotten by the hilarious excursionists, as on the evening of my visit I witnessed a dramatic presentation of "Carmen" in St. Catherine! I am sure productions of this kind do not help to heighten the literary reputation of communities. The title was my



THE INTERIOR OF ST. CATHERINE'S



THE APOTHECARY SHOP

Erected in the fifteenth century, and in excellent condition. The business is still carried on by the direct descendants of the original owners.

only clue to the opera, but, in all justice to my hosts, I must admit that the arrangements of the lanterns and decorations were effective, and that it was a weird but interesting sight. The old keeper, more inspired by pecuniary than sentimental arguments, does not enter a very emphatic protest.

Only one of the former churches of Wisby is still kept in repair—that of St. Maria, the present cathedral. It is one of the most important churches from the Middle Ages in Sweden; built in Roman style, with the half-circle dominating in the vaults, portals, and windows. The windows are a mixture of Roman and Gothic style. A few years ago it was restored, and to-day it is in a splendid condition. The Church of St. Olaf stands at the entrance of a park called "The Bathing-Friends' Garden;" it was built in 1100 by the Danish King Eric Ejegod and consecrated to the Apostle of Gotland; this and Olaf the Holy are much ruined.

St. Drotten, or the Holy Trinity Church, situated in St. Hans Street, was built in the first half of the thirteenth century, in the later Roman style. It has a square tower of considerable length and breadth. This church is also named the Northern Sister Church, and derives its name from two philanthropic sisters, who each built a house of worship as a gift to Wisby; the Southern Sister Church, or St. Lars, built in the middle of the twelfth century, is one of the oldest churches in Wisby, and almost the only cross church of Gotland. This church has a pretty tower at the west, and within the walls there are mysterious galleries and subterranean passages for processions.

Of St. Peter remains only a wall in the vicinity of St. Hans, whereof very little is left. Of St. Gertrud only a part of the wall is left. There were also formerly the Russian Church, St. Jacob, St. Michel, and the Castle Church of Wisborg, but very small traces are left of them now. In the north, outside the town, is St. Goran (George), built about 1200; and in the southern part of the town there are still some remains of the grand Castle of Wisborg.

The exploits of the brave sea hero, Sverin Norrby, the Danish king's commander in the Castle of Wisborg, are to this day retold in the beautiful folk-lore tales and songs of Scandinavia.

Among the most remarkable buildings of the town are several Hanseatic houses; the Pharmacy in the Strandgatan, one of the best preserved; the Burmeister's house, in the same street, built in 1661, with an old dining-room, paintings on ceilings and walls, and an old fireplace. One gable of the house is completely covered with ivy.

The Museum of Antiquities gives an insight into Gotland's cultural development from the oldest to the present time; some of the exhibits are of great interest. Among them are excavations of stone from the bronze and iron ages; ecclesiastical objects principally from the Middle Ages, partly brought from some of Gotland's churches, as, for instance, altar-shrines, crucifixes, pictures of saints, bench ornamentations, shrines, window-paintings, fonts, rosaries, scents; implements for the chase and agriculture, former wearing apparel, embroideries, Gobelins, household articles of wood, tin, clay, faïence, china, and glass, furniture from different ages, a collection of pictures, articles of ornament, coins, arms, and torture implements.

There are in Wisby many walks. The principal one, leading from the harbor along the seashore, is called Strandwägen; on its other side it is bounded by the wall surrounding the town. It is said that this walk reminds one of Nizza; a high Russian functionary found a great resemblance in some parts of it to those of the Holy City.

From the Strandwägen you come to the Studentalleen, a very wide and delightful promenade, which leads to the Botanical Gardens, where, among other interesting things, is a rich collection of pine-trees from every part of the world. Outside the north wall are the Gravarne or ditches—formerly the moats, but now used as a walk. Southerly, at some distance, lies Wisborg's Slätt, where the infantry regiment of Gotland have their encampment. Still farther off is the magnificent royal residence Fridhem, an idyllic spot, where the late Swedish Princess Eugenie spent many summers. It is now occupied by Prince Bernadotte.

In the neighborhood is a picturesque cliff called the Högklint, which rises very steeply from the sea. A staircase leads down to a pretty terrace in the cliff and to a grotto called Getsvälten. From the Högklint leads a very romantic narrow path to a peculiar part of the beach called the Röfvar Liljas Hala (the cave of the robber Lilja). A little further is a high tower called Jacobsberg, from which a great number of the ninety churches of Gotland can be seen.

There is an old legend that the town of Winertha, whose site has long since disappeared (due, it is said, to the encroachment of the Baltic), can be seen only from this tower when it rises from the waves. It is fabled that it was destroyed because of the sins of the inhabitants, who had grown proud and disdainful. On fine and calm days mariners can, it is said, behold the city, with its silver ramparts, its marble columns, its stirring, richly dressed population, leading, beneath the ocean, the life which they led while their city was still on firm ground. Every Good Friday this splendid city, with its fortresses, castles, and churches, is permitted to rise and sun itself in the daylight, to be again submerged on Easter Day.

Northward from the town is the Galgberg (the gallows), with three pillars, and a little to the left of this is another cave called Röfvarhalan (the robbers' cave), after the legend of an abode for pirates.

There are yet many other remarkable things worth mentioning, but what this article cannot sufficiently express is the quaint character pervading the whole of Wisby.

There is to be seen in the Royal Museum at Stockholm a magnificent collection of gold and silver arm-rings from Gotland, and on the island of Stora Carlso, four miles south of Wisby, traces have been found of the cave inhabitants.

There are many more testimonies to the ancient wealth and commercial importance of the island of Gotland, among them the amount of Roman, Byzantine, Anglo-Saxon, and German coins still found on its soil, as also the number of ruined churches, most of them of great size and of architectural beauty, dotted over its area.

To this day the island, impoverished and depopulated, owns a church to every six hundred persons. The churches, it is true, have fallen into sad decay, but yet remain to testify to the island's glorious past.

To return to the League whose remarkable achievements have not yet faded from our memory, I beg to say, in conclusion, a few words more. By the sixteenth century its officers had so far advanced in statecraft, and the League itself had acquired so much political influence, that it was able to depose the King of Denmark (Christian II.) and bestow not only his crown but also that of Sweden upon candidates of its own selection.

The civilization which had been at first confined to the cities connected with the League gradually spread over the surrounding country. Feudal anarchy was everywhere superseded by a system of law and order; doctrines of education were universally promulgated, and the authority of government was firmly established.

The inhabitants of the surrounding country, having learned to appreciate the advantages derived from commerce and education, began preparations for the carrying out of similar measures; and, in addition to these circumstances, the different cities, in their struggle for commercial supremacy, became daily more and more opposed to one another, and so hastened the dissolution of the League.

The discovery of America and of the sea route to India struck the severest blow to the Hansa, by diverting the stream of commerce from the Baltic to the Atlantic shores of Europe; and towards the middle of the fifteenth century the herring ceased to enter the Baltic in such large quantities as before, but began to direct their course instead to off the coasts of Holland.

From the middle of the fifteenth century the power of the confederacy, though still very formidable, began to decline. This was not owing to the fault of the leaders in any way, but to the natural progress of that improvement they had done so much to promote. The fall of the great confederacy was, therefore, a consequence of the improved state of society, and the development of the commercial spirit in the different nations of Europe.

It is indeed significant that never once in the splendid career of its history did it draw the sword aggressively, or even against its own members. Its ships were designated in its acts as peace ships (Friedenschiffe), and its fortresses were known as peace burgs (Friedenburgen).

For more than four centuries this combination was a most important factor not only in the commercial progress but also in the political affairs of Europe. It had been during the greater part of that period a recognized power. It had aided in creating, as in dethroning, many kings and princes, and the echoes of its greatness remain only as a memory.

A Century of Progress

III.—Travel in America in the Nineteenth Century

By Chauncey M. Depew

As Interviewed by Jno. Gilmer Speed

Americans, even in the colonial days, were great travelers, considering their opportunities and the methods that had to be employed. On foot or on horseback was pretty nearly the only method then. But, notwithstanding the difficulties, the journeys taken were great and not infrequent. Massachusetts knew the Carolinas and the intervening colonies, and *vice versa*. The war of the Revolution increased the disposition of Americans to get about and see what was beyond the individual horizon. This taste for travel was indulged in though there were no carriage roads worthy of the name; and it is not saying too much, perhaps, to venture the suggestion that the ability to overcome distances without ordinary conveniences had much to do with the success of the contest for political liberty.

But the taste for travel was increased a hundred-fold after the success of the Revolution, and the necessity for the widely separated States on the Atlantic seaboard to be represented, first in New York, then in Philadelphia, and later in Washington. Merely political reasons, however, had, though as great as stated, an inconsiderable influence on the taste and the necessity for travel compared with that when the adventurers of the "old" States crossed the Alleghanies and began to found new commonwealths on the frontier which is now considered to be in the middle of the country only by a geographical nomenclature which has ceased to be descriptive. In the days just at the dawning of this century the people in Kentucky, Ohio, and Tennessee were dependent almost entirely on the Eastern States for manufactured goods, and they could pay for these necessities only with natural products, marketed in Baltimore and Philadelphia on the one side, and in New Orleans on the other. It therefore came about that there was constant travel between this frontier and these very distant seaports, The usual method for passengers was on foot, on horseback, or by flatboats on the Ohio and Mississippi and the tributaries of these great rivers. A merchant in Philadelphia would send his goods, partly by wagons and packs, to the Ohio River at Pittsburg, thence by water to Limestone, and then again by pack and wagon to Lexington in Kentucky—Lexington being in 1802 the metropolis and the commercial emporium of the district now embraced in Kentucky, Tennessee, Indiana, and Ohio. This journey varied, according to the weather and the state of the water in the rivers, from thirty to forty-five days. It is now easily done in thirty hours.

The going to and fro from the East to the West and the North to the South continued to grow in volume for a quarter of a century or more without any notable improvement in the methods of transportation. It is true the steamboat was introduced, but the Ohio River was not a satisfactory highway for boats even of the lightest draught, and the difficulties of navigation provoked John Randolph of Roanoke to say in Congress that the Ohio was a mighty estuary of the sea, "dry one half of the year and frozen the other half." But the sarcasm of the witty Virginian had no effect on the course of travel, which continued to be to those fertile sections where land was cheap and opportunity was free. In those districts the breeding of horses even in these early days was done with skill, and a fifteen-hand horse was produced that could do his forty-five miles a day over roads unworthy of the name for months at a time. And in this way journeys were performed of fifteen and eighteen hundred miles without more ado than people now go the same distances, when forty-five miles an hour is not unusual on our better railways.

In 1817 there traveled through this country an Englishman named Birkbeck, who finally settled in Indiana. When he was on the road between Philadelphia and Pittsburg he made this record in his diary:

> They are great travelers, and, in general, better acquainted with the vast expanse of country spreading over their eighteen States (of which Virginia alone nearly equals Great Britain in extent) than the English with their little island. They are also a migrating people, and even when in prosperous circumstances can contemplate a change in situation which, under our old establishments and fixed habits, none but the most enterprising would venture upon when urged by adversity. To give an idea of the internal movements of this vast hive, about twelve thousand wagons passed between Baltimore and Philadelphia in the last year, with from four to six horses, carrying from thirty-five to forty hundred-weight. Add to these the numerous stages loaded to the utmost, and the innumerable travelers on horseback, on foot, and in light wagons, and you have before you a scene of bustle and business, extending over a space of three hundred miles (from Philadelphia to Pittsburg), which is truly wonderful.

This is a feature of travel in America up to the introduction and development of railroads, which did not amount to much for many years after 1830, when Peter Cooper built his first locomotive in America and George Stevenson got his first serious backing for a line in England. But from the introducing of railways in America till now the change has been enormous. With the disposition of Americans to embrace with too much earnestness, perhaps, a new practical idea, the railways were developed with a rapidity which prevented the builders from realizing that there were other highways, the common roads, for instance, which were neglected as unnecessary. Now the place which cannot be reached by a railroad or some vessel propelled by steam is remote indeed, and the forty-five miles a day of the early years of the century has permanently given place to forty-five and even sixty miles an hour as a regular thing in the best trains of our best roads.

As to the development of the future Mr. Chauncey M. Depew, President of the New York Central, is a good authority. In an address delivered some months ago to the railway employees of the system of which he is President, Mr. Depew spoke of the enormous increase in the commerce of the railways and the marvelous decrease in the cost of carrying the products of one part of the country to another. His figures showed that the railways of the United States, in their yearly transportation of freight, approach the colossal figures of the ocean commerce of the world; and while year by year this enormous traffic has been increasing, the cost of carrying these products has steadily decreased, until now it amounts on the average to only a fraction of one cent per ton for each mile of haulage.

Mr. Depew did not speak of the passenger transportation, of its vast increase, and of the effect of universal traveling upon the American people, because that was a phase of railway development which did not relate to the subject which he intended to discuss with the conductors and brakemen and engineers and others whom he was addressing.

But in a recent conversation Mr. Depew spoke at some length and very interestingly upon this subject. There hung upon the wall, just behind his desk, a large photograph of the first passenger locomotive and railway train used for daily service in the United States; and beneath it was another photograph of the locomotive engine No. 999, which was exhibited at the World's Fair, and which made the phenomenal record of hauling an ordinary passenger train for a brief distance at a rate of about 100 miles an hour.

"Those two photographs," said Mr. Depew, "represent or suggest the entire development of railway passenger travel in the United States. They suggest it in many ways. That queer-looking engine, which was called the De Witt Clinton, is a rude, unsightly machine, which nevertheless did its work very well. It hauled, as can be seen from the photograph, three coaches which were nothing but ordinary stage-coaches set upon trucks suitable to run upon railway tracks. These coaches were able to carry about twenty passengers, and the little engine hauled them from Utica to Schenectady, seventeen miles, in a little over an hour's time. They were uncomfortable, the inconveniences occasioned by the burning of wood were very great, and yet this little railway train was the first of the great carriers of the United States.

"Now see what Locomotive 999 is and what it can do. It is a marvel of mechanical construction. It can attain very high speed. It can draw a train with ease at the rate of sixty miles an hour for long distances, and a train containing over four hundred passengers. Its perfection of construction, the vast advances made in engineering and in economy-producing devices, make it possible for a single engine like that to haul a great number of passengers, and for that reason the expense for travel has been decreased, while the comforts of travel have reached the highest possible point. Now these two engines and the trains which they were and are able to draw illustrate vividly what the railways have done in the way of making the American people the greatest travelers in the world. That, to be sure, is not the only reason. All other civilized nations have railways, but their people do not patronize them as Americans do. The Americans are natural travelers. The ties of home do not bind them to a locality as is the case in other countries. That is one of the reasons why the great West was so quickly and magnificently peopled. Moreover, the impulse of the vast majority of the American people, when they have leisure or a little money for recreation, is to go somewhere; and in addition to that, the vast extent and complication of the business interests of the United States make travel for business purposes one of the features of our business life.

"Besides that, the enormous facilities given by the railways which diverge from all the great popular centers to the suburban districts have made hundreds of thousands of Americans daily travelers all the way from ten to sixty miles."

Mr. Depew was asked if, in his view, the limit of passenger traffic had been reached, or whether we were to expect a constantly increasing disposition on the part of the American people to use railway trains.

"In one sense I think it may be said that we have reached the limit of passenger travel. Almost everybody does travel nowadays, more or less, and the increase in travel hereafter will simply be the result of increase of population, or perhaps the extension of the railways. More people will travel, of course, but it will simply be because there will be more people each year to do that. I ought perhaps to say that in the past three or four years there has been a falling off in railway passenger travel all over the country, but it has been due to necessity rather than disposition. The business stagnation, the hard times, the necessity for the curtailment of expenses by merchants—all these things have caused a great falling off in passenger traffic. But that is only temporary. It is not due to the fact that the people no longer care to travel. As soon as business revives we shall find passenger traffic as great as ever."

Mr. Depew was then asked whether there had been any recent tendencies which seemed to check business travel.

"Yes, a very decided change in that respect has been going on within the past three or four years. Let me illustrate by an experience which I had yesterday. I met an old business friend who was in the habit of coming to New York from his distant home two or three times a month in the interest of his business. He told me that he no longer did so. He said that he found that he was able to carry on his business in New York by means of the telephone, which he used an hour or two every day, and which answered every purpose for direct face-to-face conversation. He pays for his telephone several hundred dollars a year—probably not more than his railway fares would cost him; but he saves four or five days' time every month.

"Our merchants have found out that it is possible thus to carry on business directly, almost as though face to face, by the use of the telephone, so that a majority of business transactions which do not require personal action, the signing of contracts, or personal inspection, may be now carried on almost as well over the telephone as by personal interviews. That, I think, is going more and more to lessen purely business travel. In the old days the country merchant felt obliged to come two or three times a year to New York, and the merchant who lived nearer to come perhaps once or twice a month, or even oftener. Now, unless he wants recreation and a pleasant trip for his family, it is no longer necessary to do that; and I think all the railways in the United States have noticed a falling off of purely business travel due entirely to the telephone. The telegraph never curtailed railway travel. If anything, it increased it, just as letter correspondence did; but the telephone is practically a personal interview. It is immediate, on the spot, and in that respect differs from the telegraph or the mails. With this exception I have no doubt that the general propensity of the American people to travel will continue; and it may be that the business man will take longer or more frequent excursions, now that he does not find it necessary to travel for business reasons, than he did when a railway trip was taken purely for business advantage."

Mr. Depew was then asked if he had reached the limit of high speed, and he qualified his reply by saying that he simply referred to the steam locomotive train.

"We have certainly developed the highest speed at which the public desires to travel. Not because travelers do not like to go any faster, but because they are not willing to pay the extra price which the running of a train at a very high rate of speed makes necessary. We had a very fine test of that in this country at the time of the World's Fair. A train was put on the railroad of which I am President, designed to make the trip between New York and Chicago practically in one night, and also the return trip in the same time. It was possible, when that train was in service, to do business on the Exchanges in New York one day, and to be in Chicago soon after the opening of the Exchanges there upon the next day. So, too, it was possible for a Chicago man to take that train in Chicago upon one day in the afternoon, reach New York the next morning in time to attend a directors' meeting, take a return train to Chicago, and be there practically at the opening of business hours on the following day. That train was crowded throughout the entire time of the World's Fair. Seats were at a premium, for the number of passengers possible to be carried was limited. Of course the railway company did not sell the seats at a premium, excepting that an extra charge was made for travel by this train. But those who had procured seats were often able to sell them at a premium to others who desired to go upon a particular day, and who found that the seats for that day had been all sold.

"Strangely enough, as soon as the World's Fair was over travel by that train fell off so greatly that it was not profitable to run it. That showed us that the vast majority of those who used that train did so because it was a famous train which made the trip to Chicago in a single night, and because a trip by it was regarded as a part of the novel and exciting experience of an excursion to the World's Fair.

"Now, there was another very interesting thing which was noticed. I saw it myself, for I went by that train a number of times to Chicago. I took the train because it saved time. My duties as Commissioner of the World's Fair and other engagements made it necessary for me to go to Chicago frequently, and I was very glad of an opportunity to leave here after business hours one day and to be in Chicago in time for a late breakfast the next. It was generally supposed that only the millionaires or others who had plenty of money to spend were the patrons of this very fast train. But we found very few millionaires purchasing tickets good for a trip upon it, excepting that now and then some man, being pressed for time, took it. I noticed myself that the passengers upon that train were professional men, men of salaries, men of no large wealth, some of them of comparatively small incomes. But they had saved money to go to the World's Fair, and they were going by the best railway train and by the fastest schedule. That experience has shown that the very rich will not pay unusual prices for very fast travel, and for that reason I do not believe that the present schedules, so far as time is concerned, will be essentially bettered in the future. We have got the highest rate of speed consistent with the lowest rate of fare.

"There is another thing, however, that recent experience has taught railway managers, and that is that American travelers will take luxury every time if they can get it without extra cost. Let me illustrate. A palace-car company will build a high-grade sleeping or parlor car, furnished with every comfort, at a cost, say, of $20,000. Another palace-car company will build a sleeping or parlor car, so far as comfort is concerned not one whit better than the other car I have just described, but it will be finished in rich woods, stamped leather, costly draperies, and everything that appeals to the luxurious eye. Such a car may cost $30,000. Now, if two roads going from New York to Chicago offer parlor or sleeping car accommodations at the same price, and one of them hauls the cheaper car, which is perfectly comfortable and has a servants' service fully as good as the other, while the other offers the more luxurious car, a majority of passengers will, if possible, take the more richly furnished car. They will not pay an extra price for it, but if they can get it at the same price that a trip upon the other car costs, they will choose the greater luxury. That explains why it is that more and more luxurious and elaborate furnishings have been given to sleeping and parlor cars.

"I ought to say one thing about fast travel, and that is that there are some conditions, with which the public have nothing to do, which will surely tend to limit it. For instance, the railroad of which I am President, because of low grades and for other natural reasons, is able to run faster trains than other lines whose service is between New York and Chicago. If I should decide to take advantage of this, and decide to beat all competitive lines in the matter of time without increase of fares, I should find at once the other roads protesting. They would decide to match me by reducing fares, and that would result ultimately in the cutting of rates, which would be disastrous to all of us. For that reason the standard of fast time is to some extent limited by the capacity of the road which is less able to make high speed than another competitive road."

It was suggested to Mr. Depew that many persons were of the opinion that more and more very wealthy men would own their private cars as they do steam yachts, and have them hauled here and there throughout the country. To this suggestion Mr. Depew replied:

"I do not think that a general ownership by rich men of private cars is likely to occur in this country. In the first place, a car is a pretty expensive thing, and, in the second place, the cost of maintaining it is enormous. It is not generally known that the wasting of food in a dining-car or private car which serves food is very great. It is unavoidable. It would cost five times as much to maintain a private car, even with less costly viands and wines, as it would cost the owner of it to provide his table at home with his usual manner of living. Besides that, railways charge not only for hauling the car so much a day, but in addition fares for the full seating capacity of it, and that would often be a dead waste. While for a single excursion a rich man may choose to hire a private car, yet I do not think that it will ever become a general habit of the rich to own private cars, any more than it is a general habit of the rich to own steam yachts. A very small proportion of the rich men of the country own yachts.

"I may say that in one respect we have certainly reached the highest development of passenger travel; that is the comfort, convenience, and safety guaranteed to the passengers. Railway travel may be now as comfortable and luxurious as steamship travel; and I do not see in what direction these comforts can be increased or higher luxuries furnished."

Their Works do Follow Them

By Bolton Hall

There was a great fire in the pit. It was built with toil, and it was fierce and bright. Huge logs blazed up, heating each other, and the flames roared hungrily.

On the edge of the pit, beyond the fire, a fagot had been thrown. No one saw it. The outside of it was charred and cold. But its heart glowed. It was a little fagot.

The great fire went out, for all its fuel was consumed. The air grew damp and chill.

There came a wind from God, and the fire in the little fagot waked. Slowly a wreath of smoke curled out, slowly a little tongue pushed up, and the fagot burst into flame. Softly the flame crept through the grass; it touched a tree and vaulted wildly up—the forest was afire, and its brightness lighted up the World.

The little fagot burned out, like the great fire. No one noticed it. Its fuel also was consumed.

Books and Authors

Books of the Week

[The books mentioned under this head and under that of Books Received include all received by The Outlook during the week ending September 17. This weekly report of current literature will be supplemented by fuller reviews of the more important works.]

RELIGIOUS AND THEOLOGICAL

The latest volume of the International Critical Commentary is that by the Rev. Marvin R. Vincent, D.D., of Union Theological Seminary, on *The Epistles to the Philippians and to Philemon.* These are perhaps the least important of Paul's epistles, the first one being primarily a letter of thanks for a missionary box sent to him, the second a letter almost purely personal. Dr. Vincent's treatment of both epistles is microscopic and minute rather than broad and philosophical, and furnishes an interpretation rather of words and phrases than of general teaching. The supplementary notes, which contain the latter treatment, seem to us distinguished rather by an extensive knowledge of what previous interpreters have said than by any originality of view or notable insight. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.)

The Bible and Islam; or, The Influence of the Old and New Testaments on the Religion of Mohammed, includes the Ely Lectures for 1897, by Henry Preserved Smith, D.D. Dr. Smith belongs to the school which looks with discriminating judgment for the good and the true in what are generally regarded as false religions. His judgment, however, *is* discriminating, and he does not fall into the error of those who in reaction against intolerance on the one hand fall into a foolish and fulsome admiration on the other. His discrimination in the chapter on the doctrine of God between the theism of Islam and that of the Bible affords a fine illustration of that clearness of thinking which comes from a single desire to get at the truth and absolute candor in the statement of it. We should be inclined to regard this volume as perhaps the very best for one who desired to get a clear understanding of the doctrines rather than of the practical workings of Mohammedanism; and certain parts of it would be valuable as a means of communicating to the candid Mohammedan the essential difference between Mohammedanism and Christianity. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.)

The fifth volume of the International Theological Library is *A History of Christianity in the Apostolic Age*, by Arthur Cushman McGiffert, D.D., of the Union Theological Seminary in New York. This book we reserve for future consideration. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.)

A translation of Dr. Gustav Krüger's "Geschichte der altchristlichen Litteratur" has now been made by the Rev. C. R. Gillett, and published by the Macmillan Company, New York, under the title *History of Early Christian Literature.* The recent publication in Germany of a larger work on the same subject by Professor Adolf Harnack draws attention to this excellent book by the Professor of Theology at Giessen. The translation does fairly well by the original, though the translator was somewhat handicapped by the condensation required for the American edition. With the translator, we believe that Dr. Krüger has done an important work in calling attention to the organic connection of the various remnants in early Christian literature.——Dr. S. G. Hillyer's *Manual of Bible Morality* is a clearly expressed work for use in schools and in the home. (B. F. Johnson Publishing Company, Richmond, Va.)

The third series of *Oxford House Papers* contains articles by Canon Gore on "The Athanasian Creed," Bishop Creighton on "Church and State," Professor Sanday on "The Canon of the New Testament," Principal Grant on "Undenominational Religious Instruction," and several other scholarly essays setting forth the present position of the Church of England regarding theology and statecraft. Few Americans would fail to dissent from the political attitude defended, but few of the dissenters would fail to realize the strength of the underlying conception that the mission of the Church is to "make disciples of all nations." (Longmans, Green & Co., New York.)

The Occasional Address, by Lorenzo Sears, L.H.D., Professor in Brown University, is a volume of sensible but somewhat commonplace observations regarding the form, structure, and essential characteristics of effective orations, using that word in its broadest sense. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York.)

The Greater Gospel, by John M. Bamford, is an over-eloquent discourse upon the revelations of religious truth which come through the living of a religious life. (Eaton & Mains, New York.)

NOVELS AND TALES

Among the novels of the week, and, indeed, among the American novels of the year, stands pre-eminent Dr. S. Weir Mitchell's *Hugh Wynne*. Whether considered as a historical tale, or as a reproduction of colonial social conditions at the time of the outbreak of the Revolution, or simply as a novel of character, humor, and incident, this book is worthy of the closest attention, and is thoroughly admirable. We hope at an early date to consider it more carefully. (The Century Company, New York.)

An altogether charming and artistically told story is that by Molly Elliot Seawell, called *The History of the Lady Betty Stair*. There is, we suppose, some historical basis for the tale, which is in part placed at Holyrood after the outbreak of the French Revolution, and in part follows the campaigns of Napoleon. The author has previously written several acceptable stories and historical studies, but, in our judgment, in the artistic handling of material and in true tenderness of feeling this story is very far in advance of anything she has heretofore written. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.)

The latest volume in the edition of Balzac published by the Macmillan Company in this country contains a long story, *The Seamy Side of History*, and a short tale, *Z. Marcas*. Of these, the short story is vastly the more satisfactory; the longer one displays some of Balzac's least admirable methods of fiction, and is by no means well proportioned.

Mr. Bret Harte continues to produce novels of early life in California. In *Three Partners*, miners, speculators, intriguers, and true men again appear, and are welcome to most readers. Again, also, Mr. Jack Hamlin, the reformed gambler, is the *deus ex machina* of the plot. Mr. Harte maintains an even quality in his books, though perhaps they are a little monotonous in subject; and it must be added that his style is invariably careful and worthy of praise. (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston.)——*Beyond the Pale*, by B. M. Croker, is an Irish sporting novel of only moderate interest. (R. F. Fenno & Co., New York.)——The plot of Christian Reid's *The Man of the Family* is somewhat sensational, dealing as it does with hidden treasure and Hayti Voodooism; but the style is quiet, and there is little or nothing to offend literary taste. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York.)——Two stories, *The Golden Crocodile*, by F. Mortimer Trimmer, and *The Secret of the Black Butte*, by William Shattuck, have for their subject the discovery of lost mines in the Far West. The first-named book is the more elaborate, but it is diffusely written, and the romantic part is weak. The second is, we suppose, intended chiefly for boys' reading. It has in its plot a secret cryptogram, a good bear story, and exciting incidents in great variety. Both books are published by Roberts Brothers (Boston).

In Indian Tents, by Abby L. Alger, consists of stories told to her by Penobscot, Passamaquoddy, and Micmac Indians. The author was associated with Charles G. Leland in the collection of material for his book on "The Algonquin Legends of New England," and the fascinating study of legends and tales then begun has been continued by her, when opportunity offered, ever since. All of the stories have a rare flavor certain to delight lovers of folk-lore, and some of them are full of charm for every reader. (Roberts Brothers, Boston.)

Margot, by Mr. Sidney Pickering—unless the author's name be the pseudonym of a woman writer, so feminine are some of the touches—is a good book to read about art and student life in Paris. The story part is fairly well constructed, the characters are clearly delineated, and the author's style is an attractive one. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York.)

A Norway Summer, by Laura D. Nichols, is better as a book of description than as a novel. Visitors to Norway will gladly recall some sights and experiences in these pages. (Roberts Brothers, Boston.)

HISTORY

Another work from Mr. S. R. Gardiner quickly follows his book on Cromwell. Readers of Mr. Gardiner's other books—and they are all eminently worth reading—will be prepared to find that he has taken up another phase of that period which he has studied so minutely. The present volume is called *What Gunpowder Plot Was*, and is a dispassionate account. We commend it heartily to the general reader and to the special student alike. (Longmans, Green & Co., New York.)——Mr. B. C. A. Windle has published, through Messrs. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, *Life in Early Britain*. The book is a capital account of the primitive inhabitants of Britain and of the memorials which they have left behind them. It will attract the reading of both anthropologists and archæologists—but, then, who can be one without being the other?

The Battle of Franklin, by General Jacob D. Cox, is a lucid monograph of some three hundred pages upon the battle which determined the success of Sherman's bold plan to divide his forces in Georgia and make his march to the sea. While the volume is an officer's study of what he terms "a crucial experiment in the problem of attack and defense of field-works in an open country," ex-Governor Cox has done his work so well that every soldier who took part in this decisive struggle can follow the account with exceptional ease and interest. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.)

The Century Book of the American Revolution, by Elbridge S. Brooks, issued under the auspices of the Empire State Society of the Sons of the American Revolution, with an introduction by Chauncey M. Depew, is a good enough book not to need a society back of it or a well-known name in front of it. The battle-grounds of the Revolution, and incidentally other places of historic interest, are described with spirit and portrayed in illustrations not less spirited. This is an admirable volume for the use of teachers of American history, and also for consecutive reading by boys and girls. (The Century Company, New York.)

ESSAYS

We reserve for later notice the interesting and suggestive *Talks on Writing English* by Mr. Arlo Bates (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston), and the no less interesting and suggestive *Boston Browning Society Papers* (The Macmillan Company, New York). The character of these papers may be seen when we say that among their authors are Colonel Higginson, Professors Royce, Rolfe, and Everett, and the Rev. Drs. Chadwick, Jones, and Moxom.

MYTHOLOGY

From the author of "Custom and Myth" we have a right to expect interesting reading on such a theme as *Modern Mythology*, nor does Mr. Andrew Lang disappoint us. The controversial part of the book seems well and deftly done, even though the antagonist is a doughty one—Professor Max Müller. The attack is of a skirmishing character, but Mr. Lang's style is full of the enjoyableness which made Mr. Quiller-Couch recently claim him as the greatest modern prose writer—an opinion, by the way, which we could hardly second. (Longmans, Green & Co., New York.)

POETRY

Mr. Christopher Pearse Cranch's translation of *Virgil's Æneid* is as good as any of those which have been done into blank verse. Mr. Cranch has well fulfilled the two requirements of rendering the original as literally into English as could be consistent with metrical form, and of making a poem which should reproduce the spirit of the original. (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston.)——*Way Songs and Wanderings* is the title of an attractively published book of verse by Mr. Claiborne Addison Young, whose thought seems often more elevated than its manner of expression. Still, there are many happy unions of matter and manner, especially in that division of the book entitled "Songs of the Soul." (Estes & Lauriat, Boston.)

BOOKS FOR YOUNG PEOPLE

Four volumes have been added to the Riverside Library for Young People. All are reprints of books which have received wide recognition and which are eminently suitable for this always excellent Library. The volumes are Mrs. Olive Thorne Miller's *Four-Handed Folk*, Alexander Black's *Photography Indoors and Out*, Miss Alice M. Bacon's *Japanese Girls and Women*, and Mr. Samuel H. Scudder's pleasant studies of butterfly life known as *Frail Children of the Air*. We think that we have spoken with warm commendation of all these books as they have originally appeared. We are sure that in this form they will meet a cordial welcome from young people. (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston.)

While Edna Lyall's *Wayfaring Men* is not specifically designated as a book for girls, it is really best adapted for that purpose, and we can confidently say that it is a safe book to put into the hands of girls in their early teens. To some readers it seems that the novels of this writer would be greatly improved by rigid condensation; no one, however, doubts their good moral purpose, and many find their story interest agreeable and satisfying. (Longmans, Green & Co., New York.)

Miss Sara E. Wiltse has arranged and edited from Victor Hugo's "Les Misérables" *The Story of Jean Valjean*. The editor truly points out that this is one of the best studies of the development of character in the whole range of fiction. The work of editing and arranging appears to us to have been done with discretion and judgment. (Ginn & Co., Boston.)

Two stories of school life, the first for boys, the second for girls, have just been issued by the Pilgrim Press (Boston). The boys' story is called *Redmond of the Seventh*, and is written by Mrs. Frank Lee; the girls' story is *A Genuine Lady*, by Mrs. I. T. Thurston. Both are commendable in moral purpose, and both are written in a way to please the readers for whom they are intended.

A book of peculiar interest for boys, and one which will also be read with appreciation by older persons, is Mr. Ernest Ingersoll's *Wild Neighbors*. This includes many outdoor studies of animal life. (The Macmillan Company, New York.)

Wanolasset, by A. G. Plympton, is a gracefully written story of a little Puritan maiden who is carried away by Indians in the famous King Philip's War. (Roberts Brothers, Boston.)——Miss Beatrice Harraden has brought out a new edition of a book of fairy stories first published some time ago. It is called *A New Book of the Fairies*. Some of the tales are a trifle didactic, but, generally speaking, they are prettily told and will interest children. The book is published in an attractive form. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York.)——An English story of child life by Helen Milman, called *Little Ivan's Hero*, is also published by the same firm.

MISCELLANEOUS

An always interesting subject for a book of travel is Spain. Under the title *Across the Country of the Little King*, Mr. W. B. Lent records in an interesting way the results of his observations in many parts of Spain. The book is illustrated with many fine reproductions of photographs of Spanish architecture. (Bonnell, Silver & Co., New York.)

Mr. C. A. Bramble has published, through Messrs. R. F. Fenno & Co., New York, a timely book entitled *Klondike*. It is a manual for gold-seekers, and is a relief from the flood of cheap pamphlet literature now on the market. The work ought to be of distinct value to every prospective miner.

The well-known architect, Mr. George W. Kramer, in *The What, How, and Why of Church Building*, makes a great many practical suggestions not only with regard to the architecture of churches, but with reference to their planning, lighting, acoustics, insurance, fitting with furniture, etc., etc. The book cannot fail to be of value and interest to all church committees and others who have church building on hand or in prospect. (J. & R. Lamb, New York.)

Literary Notes

—Major Arthur Griffiths's important biography, shortly to be published, will be entitled "Wellington, his Comrades and Contemporaries."

—Readers of United States history will be interested in the announcement that Mr. James Schouler, having finished the manuscript of his "Constitutional Studies," has turned his attention to the long-promised sixth and concluding volume of his "History of the United States." The volume will embrace the period of the Civil War.

—In "Men I Have Known" Dean Farrar writes of Tennyson, Browning, Matthew Arnold, Maurice, Stanley, Darwin, Tyndall, Huxley, Lowell, Whittier, Holmes, Cyrus Field, George W. Childs, Archbishop Tait, Bishop Lightfoot, Phillips Brooks, the three Lyttons, Newman, Pusey, Liddon, Kingsley, Macaulay, Thackeray, and Carlyle.

—Books which will undoubtedly receive wide reading are "The Letters of Elizabeth Barrett Browning," about to be published in two volumes, with illustrations. Every period of Mrs. Browning's life is represented in the correspondence. The volumes may throw some light on political history, as Mrs. Browning was in Paris during the *coup d'état* of 1851, and resided in Florence during some of the critical years of Italy's history.

—The death is announced of Dr. Jakob Burckhardt, author of the admirable "Cicerone" (a guide to painting in Italy), and also of that impartial history, "Civilization of the Period of the Renaissance in Italy." These works have been well translated. Dr. Burckhardt's lectures enjoyed great popularity in Basle, where he was professor. His popularity was in some degree due to changing his course from year to year, but in still greater degree to the fact that he always made his lectures of a popular cast.

—Another old London inn must go. This time it is the "Magpie and Stump." In this inn a famous conspiracy was planned in 1643, the poet Waller being one of the conspirators. The plot aimed at the seizure of Pym and Hampden, the capture of the city fortifications and of the Tower. A servant revealed the plot to "Praise-God Barebones" and his brothers, who lived close at hand. Some of the conspirators were hanged, but Waller got off through a cowardly recantation, and was exiled to France. The old inn was established in 1600, and stands on the east side of Fetter Lane.

—The interesting announcement is made that a series of new classical texts will shortly be issued at Oxford, superseding the neat little duodecimos so well known to nearly two generations of scholars. To each of the new volumes there will be prefixed a Latin preface dealing with the history of the text. There will be no notes, but it is understood that the greatest care will be taken with the settlement of the text. Dr. Monro, the Provost of Oriel College, Oxford, is to undertake Homer; Dr. Wickham, the Dean of Lincoln, Horace; and Dr. Wilkins, of Owens College, Cicero.

—After the publication of what was supposed to be the final edition of Victor Hugo's works, a quantity of fragments, letters, manuscript annotations, notes, etc., came into the hands of his executors. Some of this material consists of letters addressed by the poet to his wife and daughter during his many tours. A month or two ago a volume entitled "France et Belgique" was published from this material, and now a volume is announced called "Alpes et Pyrénées." It was in 1839 that Victor Hugo visited the Alps, his visit to the Pyrenees occurring four years later. The book is said to be full not only of vivid Hugo-painting of the nature which he saw, but also of the human nature, past history, and actual political and industrial conditions.

—The death of Tommaso Vallauri, like that of Cesare Cantù two years ago (the result of a fall), was not the result of old age, but of accident. The two men had much in common in their lives, and Vallauri lived to be ninety years old. He was well called the Nestor of Latinists. He was the last representative of the rhetorical as distinguished from the scientific school of classical philology. His devotion to the manner, even to the mannerisms, of his Latin model distinguished his long professorship at the University of Turin. Professor Vallauri did much toward the development of Latin prose, and founded a school, the members of which are superior to the best Jesuits in faultless and exquisite composition. It is said that no teacher in Italy has of late years endeared himself to a more numerous array of distinguished pupils than Tommaso Vallauri.

Books Received

For the week ending September 17

BONNELL, SILVER & CO., NEW YORK

Lent, W. B. Across the Country of the Little King: A Trip Through Spain. $1.25.

THE CENTURY CO., NEW YORK

Brooks, Elbridge S. The Century Book of the American Revolution. $1.50.
Mitchell, S. Weir. Hugh Wynne, Free Quaker. $2.

E. P. DUTTON & CO., NEW YORK

Milman, Helen. (Mrs. Caldwell Crofton). Little Ivan's Hero. $1.25.
Harraden, Beatrice. A New Book of the Fairies. $1.50.

EATON & MAINS, NEW YORK

Bamford, John M. The Greater Gospel. 50 cts.

ESTES & LAURIAT, BOSTON

Young, Claiborne A. Way Songs and Wanderings.

R. F. FENNO & CO., NEW YORK

Croker, B. M. Beyond the Pale. $1.25.

GINN & CO., BOSTON

The Story of Jean Valjean. Edited by Sara E. Wiltse.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & CO., BOSTON

The Æneid of Virgil. Translated by Christopher P. Cranch. $1.
Miller, Olive Thorne. Four-Handed Folk. 75 cts.
Black, Alexander. Photography Indoors and Out. 75 cts.
Bacon, Alice M. Japanese Girls and Women. 75 cts.
Scudder, Samuel H. Frail Children of the Air. 75 cts.
Harte, Bret. Three Partners. $1.25.
Bates, Arlo. Talks on the Study of Literature. $1.50.

B. F. JOHNSON PUBLISHING CO., RICHMOND

Hillyer, Shaler G., D.D. Manual of Bible Morality.

J. & R. LAMB, NEW YORK

Kramer, George W. The What, How, and Why of Church Building. $1.25.

LONGMANS, GREEN & CO., NEW YORK

Lang, Andrew. Modern Mythology. $3.
Oxford House Papers. 75 cts.
Gardiner, Samuel R. What Gunpowder Plot Was. $1.50.
Lyall, Edna. Wayfaring Men. $1.50.

THE MACMILLAN CO., NEW YORK

The Boston Browning Society Papers. From 1886–1897. $3.
Krüger, Dr. Gustav. History of Early Christian Literature in the First Three Centuries. Translated by Rev. C. R. Gillett. $2.
Ingersoll, Ernest. Wild Neighbors. $1.50.
Balzac, Honoré de. The Seamy Side of History. Translated by Clara Bell. $1.50.

THE PILGRIM PRESS, BOSTON

The Chautauqua Year Book. Edited by Grace L. Duncan. $1.
Lee, Mrs. Frank. Redmond of the Seventh. $1.25.
Thurston, I. T. A Genuine Lady. $1.25.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS, NEW YORK

Sears, Lorenzo. The Occasional Address. $1.25.
Windle, Bertram C. A. Life in Early Britain. $1.25.
Reid, Christian. The Man of the Family. $1.
Pickering, Sidney. Margot. $1.

ROBERTS BROS., BOSTON

Trimmer, F. Mortimer. The Golden Crocodile. $1.50.
Nichols, Laura D. A Norway Summer. $1.25.
In Indian Tents. Stories told by Indians to Abby L. Alger. $1.
Shattuck, William. The Secret of the Black Butte. $1.50.
Plympton, A. G. Wanolasset. $1.25.

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS, NEW YORK

Seawell, Molly Elliot. The History of the Lady Betty Stair. $1.25.
Cox, Jacob D. The Battle of Franklin, Tenn. $2.
McGiffert, Arthur C., D.D. A History of Christianity in the Apostolic Age. $2.50.
Smith, Henry Preserved, D.D. The Bible and Islam. $1.50.
Vincent, Rev. M. R., D.D. Commentary on the Epistles to the Philippians and to Philemon. $2.

The Religious World

To Country Pastors

Whoever aids in bringing people together who need one another and can serve one another does a good work. This is especially desirable for the enlarged success of those benevolent undertakings which aim to relieve helpless need by opening ways to self-help. Those who administer charity organization societies in the city often find people fit and willing for service in the country, who would be much better off in the country. There are also many people in the country who need the service that such persons could render. Transfers of such from the city to the country are often effected with great benefit. Doubtless many more could be effected, if only the communications could be opened for a wider knowledge of reciprocal needs. We can think of nothing more conducive to this than for the ministers of churches in country neighborhoods to be watchful for such opportunities, and, wherever they appear, to communicate with the Secretary of the Charity Organization that is nearest. The Brooklyn Secretary writes us: "I would like especially to get the clergymen of the country towns on Long Island and in New York State to co-operate with us in providing opportunities for those among our beneficiaries who are willing to go from the city to the country. I doubt not there are in many country towns excellent people who would be willing to take into their homes women and children for a very small consideration, and sometimes for the service they could render; and we know frequently of women and children who would be much better off if they could be transferred to the country." This is a representative case. It is in other cities as in Brooklyn. We warmly commend it to the attention of country pastors. "Helps" are reckoned by St. Paul among the gifts of the Spirit.

Negro Life in Cities

In the columns of The Outlook in June an article by one of its editors spoke of the educational work among the negroes of the South, dwelling especially upon what he had himself recently observed in Tuskegee and Atlanta. That article commended very highly the conference on problems concerning negro city life held at Atlanta University May 25 and 26. We are again reminded of this conference by the receipt of a pamphlet of eighty-six pages, published by the Atlanta University Press, entitled "Social and Physical Condition of Negroes in Cities." This pamphlet contains the papers read at the conference, which had been prepared by representative colored men and women, the proceedings and resolutions of the conference, and an appendix of carefully chosen statistics. These statistics, by the way, are a selection from a larger group of statistics published in the spring in Bulletin No. 10 of the United States Department of Labor, which had been carefully gathered in eighteen cities by colored men and women under the direction of Atlanta University. There is no hesitation on the part of any of these writers in facing the real facts. A mortality among the colored people living in cities that is seventy-four per cent. in excess of that of the white is indeed a serious condition to face. But the causes, which were found to be principally consumption, infant mortality, ignorance, and immorality, were carefully examined and practical suggestions were offered. Much attention was given to those industrial conditions which compel mothers to be absent from home while laboring to support their families, and to such remedies as day nurseries, kindergartens, mothers' meetings, and the like.

A New Era in China

All the reports coming to us now indicate great progress in Christian work in China. The effect of the war with Japan was to make the Chinese realize that the Japanese were stronger because they had been willing to learn from the Occident. The more advanced among the leaders in China have now turned their eyes toward the West, and are seeking light and strength for themselves. A writer in the "Christian World," who is evidently well informed, says that the Chinese hesitated about going to the Ministers of the foreign Governments because they felt that they would not be disinterested. They became convinced, however, that they could trust the missionaries, and consequently the missionaries are now playing a large part in the opening of the Flowery Kingdom. One of the means which has been very successful is a Chinese translation of Mackenzie's "History of the Nineteenth Century," by the